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THE JUNIOR COLLEGE, OR UPWARD EXTENSION OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

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Geographic-educational conditions in California are such as to demand that the public-school system, in many sections of the state, shall meet the requirements for advanced training above the four-year high-school course.

If the map of California were placed on the eastern seaboard of the United States it would cover the whole of New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, and about two-thirds of New York, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and North Carolina. While the population of California is less than that of each of several of the above-mentioned states, on the other hand, two or three small areas in this state each contain a greater population than that of each of four of the smaller states mentioned. Besides the two great universities in California—the state university and Stanford University—both of which are located near San Francisco, the state is without university advantages such as are afforded by a large number of colleges and universities distributed over like areas in the eastern portion of this country. Thus when one considers only the largest of the eastern universities and thinks of their geographical distribution from Harvard at the north to Johns Hopkins at the south, the concentration of university opportunities in California becomes obvious. The element of distance is a most important factor to

the individual in planning his educational career. Even though the financial consideration of railroad fare be overcome, a parent will often hesitate to send his child so far from home that one, or possibly two, visits a year only are possible. Parents are justly concerned as to the advisability of severing home ties and the home restraints that should often continue for some years after the age of graduation from the high school as this latter institution is commonly organized in the United States. Some towns in California are almost as far, on an air-line, from either of the universities as Chicago is from New York, and many are much farther by the nearest railroad.

The above-mentioned conditions had much to do with the passage of a law by the legislative session of 1907 giving high schools the authority to extend the scope of their work to include two years of college training. The text of the law is as follows:

The high-school board of any high-school district, or trustees of any county high school, may prescribe postgraduate courses of study for the graduates of such high school, or other high schools, which course of study shall approximate the studies prescribed in the first two years of university courses. The high-school board of any high-school district, or trustees of any high school wherein such postgraduate courses of study are taught, may charge tuition for pupils living without the boundaries of the district or county wherein such courses are taught.

It will be noted that the law does not make provision for financing this advanced work, leaving it to local communities to provide the necessary funds. It seems that the framers of the law intended to put this higher educational work on the same basis as the regular high-school course, so far as state aid and local financing are concerned. At the next session of the legislature succeeding the passage of this law, a bill was passed providing substantial state aid for such schools as desired to take advantage of this movement; but owing to the unusual draft on the state exchequer the governor vetoed the measure. It seems quite probable that such a measure will be presented again at the coming session, with a more favorable outlook toward meeting the financial obligations involved.

It is well known that California is most liberal in providing financial support for its educational institutions. It may there-

fore be assumed that it was not the lack of financial support that caused a delay of three years from the time the legislature passed the above-mentioned act before the first steps were taken by any school department to put it into effect.

As previously stated, the population of California is found to be grouped in several important centers. These in order of population are: the Bay section with San Francisco as its nucleus, southern California with Los Angeles as its center, Sacramento Valley with Sacramento as its center, San Joaquin Valley with Fresno as its center, extreme southern California with San Diego as its center, then several smaller groups along the coast and in the northern part of the state. Each of these local centers has its own problems and conditions in the way of government, climate, industries, commerce, and education.

The Bay section is well provided with institutions for higher educational training as before stated. Southern California has several colleges and universities of secondary rank which are equipped to meet local demands. The center of population in the Sacramento Valley section is less than one hundred miles from the state university. The San Joaquin Valley section, however, the center of which is over two hundred miles from any institution of higher education, seemed to be the most logical division in which the "junior college" should have its birth.

The first movement toward making use of this "upward extension" law was made by the city superintendent of the Fresno schools in June, 1910, when a circular letter was sent to patrons of the Fresno High School and to the principals of various other nearby high schools. Over two hundred favorable replies were received with not one adverse opinion. A report was then presented to the local board of education presenting conditions and arguments looking toward the establishment of an institution of higher learning in connection with the local high school. The substance of this report will, no doubt, best present the leading facts pertaining to the organization and establishment of this first "junior college."

There is no institution of higher education within two hundred miles of Fresno where students may continue their studies beyond the regular high-school courses. Many of our high-school graduates are but seventeen or eighteen years of age and parents are frequently loath to send these young

people so far from home. Many who desire to continue their studies cannot afford the expense necessary to college attendance where the items of room and board mean so much. Authorities in the University of California and Stanford University have been consulted in this matter and seem much interested in the project. Both have promised such assistance as they may be able to render in planning courses and securing instructors. There seems to be no question as to the possibility of doing work of such merit as will command recognition from these institutions. The following general aims are set forth:

1. To give to young people of this section of the state, who cannot afford to go to either of the universities, an opportunity to continue their studies at home.
2. To provide practical courses in agriculture, manual training, domestic science, and other technical work in addition to the regular academic courses.
3. To carry students through the first two years of a college course, thus enabling them to complete a four years' course with but two years' residence at the university.

The report concluded with the following recommendations:

1. That the Board of Education authorize the establishment of a two years' postgraduate course along the lines above mentioned.
2. That mathematics, English, Latin, modern languages, history, economics, and technical work be the general courses offered for the first year.
3. That a competent person be secured as dean or head of this department, with such assistants as the attendance and courses desired may justify.

This report was adopted and the superintendent was authorized to carry out the details preparatory to opening this department along with the high school in September following.

Several vacancies occurring at this time in the high school, including the principalship, it was thought best to reorganize, placing the new principal over the entire institution including the "junior college," and selecting for the heads of such departments as were vacant instructors with college experience and thorough university training. This plan was carried out, it being understood that these special instructors should take such regular high-school classes as might be required to fill in their daily programs. Three such teachers were selected, one of whom was given the title "Dean of the Junior College." The state university authorities rendered valuable assistance in selecting the head of the school as well as these assistants.

Special equipment was purchased for scientific and mathe-

matical instruction and quite a number of books added to the library, the entire cost not exceeding \$1,500. The extra expense for salaries for the first year was \$3,200, counting actual time devoted to junior college classes. The enrolment for the first year was twenty, which number has been doubled in this the third year. The cost for maintenance now runs about \$4,200 per annum, making the expense per capita for this work run a little in excess of \$100 per annum—somewhat larger than that of regular high-school instruction. About one-third of the attendance in this department is from other high schools in this section of the state. A tuition of \$4 per month is charged these non-resident students—the same as charged for the regular high school.

In September, 1911, the Fresno State Normal School was established and temporarily housed in the high-school building, and conducted in conjunction with the junior college. No doubt many students were enrolled in the normal at this time who would otherwise have taken regular junior college work. On the other hand, scores of normal students have elected college subjects where their courses permitted electives outside their regular professional studies.

It cannot be said that the junior college has attracted to it all or even a comparatively large part of the students in this section of the state who are pursuing college courses. It would have been quite impossible for a new institution, without adequate funds or equipment, to care for the hundreds who take up higher educational work. Nor was it to be expected or even desired that such a result would follow. In many instances it is desirable that a student have a new environment—a new setting, so to speak—to give new zest and an added stimulus to his efforts. Even though a local institution offers equal advantages, it is often advisable to throw the young high-school graduate on his own responsibility for a time by severing home relationships. It is not, therefore, the aim of this institution to take over the entire responsibility of doing the first two years of college work. While authorities in both of the California universities seem to look forward to the time when they will be entirely relieved of this first two years of college work,

it will require substantial aid from the state, and years of effort and experimentation, with earnest co-operation on the part of the universities, to bring about such a result. At the very outset many conditions and problems arise, and success or failure depends on the outcome of their solution. First, there is the natural prejudice which arises in the minds of the teachers in the regular high-school faculty, who have so long constituted the *corps d'élite* of the school department, against adding to the school a department of higher educational standing. It might seem an easy solution of the question merely to add two successive years of work to the regular high-school courses, using teachers already in the school so far as they are qualified to do the higher work. This plan has been followed in one or more of the cities of the state with the result that students look upon it as mere advanced high-school work instead of distinctive college work. Then if it is the purpose of the school to meet the standards of the universities, and gain their support and confidence, it is necessary to put special instructors in charge who shall at once command the attention and confidence of both the student and the university. As before stated, conditions in Fresno were quite favorable in meeting this problem. A separate faculty, with one of the number chosen as dean, was selected; it being the purpose to have a separate student body, and in every possible way endeavor to impress upon students and the public at large the fact that serious work of distinctive college standards is being undertaken.

The opinions of some leading educators will show the interest that this movement has developed in California.

I am looking forward, as you know, to the time when the large high schools of the state in conjunction with the small colleges will relieve the two great universities from the expense and from the necessity of giving instruction of the first two university years. The instruction of these two years is of necessity elementary and of the same general nature as the work of the high school itself. It is not desirable for a university to have more than about two thousand students gathered together in one place, and when the number comes to exceed that figure then some division is desirable. The only reasonable division is that which will take away students who do not need libraries or laboratories for their work. The value of the university is highly dependent

on its possession of great and expensive libraries. I am interested in the experiment which is going on at Fresno, and in the high school in Los Angeles.

Very truly yours,

DAVID STARR JORDAN

President Leland Stanford Junior University

May 16, 1912

Farsighted and progressive educators are agreed that the establishment of "junior colleges" denotes a necessary development in the right direction. Such extensions of the four-year high school would (1) enable the universities to concentrate their efforts on university work proper, (2) provide for young people from eighteen to twenty years of age the immense educational advantage of being taught and trained in small groups, not far from home, (3) make it possible for thousands who are unable to attend a university to round out their general education, (4) reduce very materially the cost of college and university education, (5) provide—a most important factor—finishing vocational courses in agriculture, the industries, commerce, applied civics, domestic science, etc., which cannot be adequately provided either by the four-year high school or by the universities, (6) tend to create a number of educational centers of a high order whose influence for good would extend in many directions over large areas of the state.

The state university has stood for the junior college plan for more than fifteen years, and its policy is to further the establishment of junior colleges in every possible way. This implies of course that the university stands ready to recognize the courses of junior colleges as the equivalent of corresponding courses at Berkeley and to give full credit for successfully completed work.

The city of Fresno is to be greatly congratulated on being the first city in the state to establish a junior college. May this prosper and become year by year more useful, especially to those who would otherwise have to forego the chance of higher vocational training. Those recommended for university work at Berkeley will, I feel confident, have no reason to regret that their Freshman and Sophomore work was done in Fresno.

ALEXIS F. LANGE

Dean of the Faculties, University of California

May 30, 1912

Excerpts from a circular prepared by F. Liddeke, principal of the Fresno Junior College and High School:

Professor Alexis F. Lange, dean of the University of California and head of its educational department, during his recent visit of inspection addressed the Seniors and college students. He traced the development of the movement for the upward extension of high schools in California. This movement aims to relegate the work of college Freshman and Sophomore years in uni-

versities to the high schools sufficiently equipped to carry such work, and so to have American universities gradually approximate to the continental European universities. It is becoming more and more necessary to eliminate secondary studies in our highest institutions of learning, and to put them in high schools where they belong.

It was furthermore stated that because of having to mass lower division students at the University of California in very large classes, it is impossible to give them anything like the opportunities they need. The instructors and the equipment are overtaxed. It was asserted expressly that Fresno students had a better chance and could do better college Freshman and Sophomore work in their "junior college" than at the university. Here at home, in their small classes they could get closer to, and keep closer to, their studies and their instructors.

One point was emphasized clearly; namely, that the University of California would recognize, and could afford to recognize, the college work done by Fresno students in their home institution, that if the principal approved of the college work done by any student in Fresno High School, that work would be accepted by the university, and it would count in every respect the same as if the work had been done at the University of California and without the necessity of any further examinations.

Dr. Lange also dwelt on the opportunity upward extension in the high school affords to students who will never go to a university, and never intend to go, and how desirable it is for this college work to adapt itself to the needs of the community. He said it is cause for just pride and congratulation for Fresno High School to be a pioneer, by a whole year, in this important movement. Santa Barbara has followed this year, and Los Angeles. Others will follow next year.

Dr. Lange also stated that the Fresno six-year high-school course is also preparatory to the affiliated colleges at San Francisco, Hastings College of Law, and the California College of Medicine and Dentistry. Commencing with next year these colleges will require for entrance two more years of preparatory studies in addition to graduation from an accredited high school. Students promoted from Fresno Junior College will be admitted to any of these affiliated colleges on equal terms with students who have completed the Sophomore year at the University of California, and without any examinations or conditions.

At the University of California the courses are divided into "lower division" and "upper division." The lower division includes the Freshman and Sophomore years, and the completion of the lower division work entitles the student to the "junior certificate." Only then, when he has qualified for this certificate, is the student enabled to become a member of the university proper, for the real university commences with the Junior year and extends through the graduate courses. Hence, the first two college years are essentially pre-

paratory, for the work of these years is only a continuation of preparatory education. By commencing to relegate all this secondary work to the secondary schools, the university aims to lessen the swamping of its premises with blessings in the way of Freshmen and Sophomores it is not equipped to care for. The present equipment is only sufficient for upper divisions, real university work. In view of the rapidly increasing population of this state this policy becomes all the more imperative.

Stanford University is also backing this upward extension movement. In fact, the term "junior college" is said to have originated with President Jordan. Professor Bentley, Stanford inspector, during his visit last semester expressed great interest and solicitude in having lower college work done in high schools. Our two great California universities are one in their attitude toward "junior college" work in our secondary institutions.

In addition to the advantages already indicated, the fact should commend itself to parents particularly that they are enabled to have their children at home, and under home influences for two years longer, to say nothing of economy in expenses. This applies more especially to students living in or near Fresno, but also in the case of students from more remote homes who are enabled to be at home during the week end.

The following details with regard to the faculty and the courses offered may be of interest for the purpose of showing the equipment of the school. The academic training of each teacher is indicated as perhaps the most important item in describing each department.

JUNIOR COLLEGE FACULTY

F. Liddeke, principal.

A.B., Harvard University; Berlin University.

G. W. Huntting, dean of College Department. College English and Latin.

A.B., Columbia University; M.L., University of California.

J. A. Nowell, vice-principal of high school. College history.

A.B., Stanford University.

H. W. Stager. College mathematics.

A.M., Stanford University; Ph.D., University of California.

J. A. Daly. College physics.

B.S., University of California.

B. A. Stagner. College chemistry.

Kirkville State Normal; A.B. and B.S., University of Missouri.

Miss Katherine M. Douglas. College French.

A.B., University of California; University of Paris.

Miss Florence Robinson. College German.

A.B., University of California.

Courses offered	Years in course
English, 2 years.....	5 and 6
Latin, 2 years.....	5 and 6
German, 2 years.....	4 and 5
French, 2 years.....	4 and 5
European history.....	5
Industrial history, alternate years.....	5
Institutional history.....	6
Solid geometry	
Trigonometry, $\frac{1}{2}$ year.....	5
Analytical geometry, $\frac{1}{2}$ year.....	5
Algebraic theory, $\frac{1}{2}$ year.....	5
Descriptive geometry, $\frac{1}{2}$ year.....	5 and 6
Calculus, differential	
Calculus, integral, 1 year.....	6
Organic chemistry, 1 year.....	5 and 6
Chemical analysis, qualitative and quantitative, 1 year.....	5 and 6
Advanced physics, 1 or 2 years.....	5 and 6
Surveying, 1 year.....	5 and 6
Machine shop, 1 year.....	5 and 6

Many other high schools in the state have taken up this advanced work, but probably none under so definite and distinctive an organization as that under which the Fresno movement is carried on. Several, however, are now laying the foundation for the full two years' college work with a more or less distinctive organization. From the many inquiries received from leading educators of other states it is evident that this movement is also attracting some attention elsewhere.

A HIGH-SCHOOL COURSE IN FIELD GEOGRAPHY

GEORGE J. MILLER
University High School, Chicago

The great importance of field work in all the natural sciences has long been recognized. If its need is any more pressing in one group of sciences than in another those sciences are geography and geology. Field geography obviously does not mean the naming and locating of cities, capitals, rivers, etc., but involves the recognition and interpretation of geographic features with special reference to plant and animal life, especially human life. Geography is primarily a field subject and only secondarily a textbook or schoolroom subject. Mountains, plains, plateaus, glaciers, arid and moist climates, with their life relationships, cannot be brought to the student. He can read *about* them but fail completely to recognize them in the field. This is well illustrated by a young university graduate who accompanied our party last season. He had "read about terminal moraines" and "wanted to see what one looked like." After riding for hours over the irregular surface of one, climbing some of its slopes so steep that he had to walk and urge his horse up after him, after camping for several days on the shores of a beautiful lake held in by it, after ascending the old glacial valley that had supplied the material for the moraine, the young man secured an appreciation of a common natural feature that his entire high school and university training had failed to give him. Since such a vital part of geography teaching lies out of doors, what is the teacher to do? The obvious answer is, Go out of doors and do it. But this is far easier said than done and no one has satisfactorily solved the problems of field work, especially in secondary schools.

For several years I have conducted local field work with my classes, but always have felt the need of more extended work. During the past five years there have been many enthusiastic field students in my classes, and they have frequently suggested that a

long-distance trip be taken to study many of the interesting things about which they had read but which they could not study at first hand. This suggestion with a definite plan of execution was presented to Principal Franklin W. Johnson, of the University High School, and met with his hearty approval. The school, as is to be expected, was not prepared to underwrite the expense of such an expedition and, therefore, I assumed the financial responsibility. The entire cost was met by members of the party. The result was the establishment in the University High School of a distinct course in field geography, open to any boy in the school, and offering a half-unit credit. To assure a party, and lessen the individual expense, boys not seeking credit were admitted. Contrary to the opinion of some, this plan added to the interest of the whole party, rather than detracted from it. In fact, it was a common occurrence to find non-credit boys arguing over a field problem or attending the conferences to learn about the things they were seeing.

The trip, therefore, aimed first to accomplish a successful course in field geography, including the constant use of topographical and geological maps and such instruments as the compass and aneroid barometer, but at the same time secured vigorous, healthy out-door exercise in the pure mountain air. It also placed together in the intimacy of camp life a group of strong, active boys; a situation that soon brings out the good and weak qualities of every individual, and a situation that forces the individual to correct his weakness. Only those who have camped with boys—walked, ridden, eaten, played, slept with them, day after day—can appreciate how quickly the strong and weak points are discovered, and with what relentless energy a boy's weaknesses are kept before him until he recognizes and corrects them. This "rubbing up against his fellows," learning to smile in sunshine, in rain, or in snow, to overcome obstacles that have seemed insurmountable to him, is an education within itself, at least to many. Perhaps it is worth as much, or more, than the course in geography itself.

REGION SELECTED

The portions of our own country that offer suitable conditions for field geography are very numerous, but the region selected was the

Jackson Hole country of Wyoming and the Yellowstone National Park. The journey to this region offered an excellent opportunity to study the climatic change from the moist Chicago region to the aridity of Utah and Idaho. It also took the class across plains, mountains, and plateaus, with their accompanying changes in altitude, climates, and life relationships. Jackson Hole is the name applied to a broad flat-bottomed valley in northwestern Wyoming. It is about 45 miles north by south and about 15 miles east by west, and is bordered on the west by the Teton Mountains, and on the east and south by other ranges. There are only two roads leading into this region from the west and only trails or very poor roads from the east and south. A good road enters the region from the north leading out of Yellowstone Park. All these roads are relatively modern. From this description it will be seen that this region was well-nigh inaccessible in pioneer days, and even today it cannot be reached during part of the year except on snow shoes. In the early days of Wyoming this inaccessibility made it the hiding-place of horse and cattle thieves. Those days are gone, but the same physical conditions prevail and make it an oasis of the American frontier. A few hardy settlers have pushed over the mountains into this oasis and are truly on the frontier of the settlement that has grown up around them. The telephone now extends into the region and, when it works, helps to keep the settlers in touch with the outside world. Evidence of the frontier spirit is shown in the complete pleasure that a whole family enjoys in traveling 75 to 125 miles across a mountainous country to attend a harvest jubilee or to celebrate the Fourth of July. Even then the place of meeting may be from 30 to 40 miles from the nearest railroad.

From the viewpoint of geography and its allied sciences this region presents many interesting features for study. The Snake River which traverses the area from north to south has cut terrace upon terrace from its gravel filled floor, while glaciers have plowed out U-shaped valleys in the bold, rugged Tetons, and, depositing the drift in semicircular ridges at the mountain base, have formed numerous beautiful lakes. Here the boy has the opportunity on many side trips to traverse regions seldom if ever visited by man

and study at first hand the work of Nature in its undisturbed condition. There is something that inspires a boy to the love of Nature as he is guided through a pathless mountain region and realizes that he is seeing things and treading ground that very few, if any, have ever trodden before.

As Jackson Hole is an oasis in the American frontier in which a few pioneers are now collected, so is it an oasis for many wild animals. There are now within its area about 20,000 elk, the last of the thousands that once inhabited our western mountains. During the summer they feed along the mountain sides, especially east of the Hole, but during the winter they descend in great herds to the grasslands along the Snake River and its tributaries. Most of this area is a national forest and game preserves, which assures the protection and conservation of wild life. It is evident therefore that besides being a rich field for geographic study Jackson Hole offers the great advantage of being little changed by man.

The splendid opportunities for study in Yellowstone Park are so well known that they require no discussion here. Few places in the world possess such an array of hot springs, geysers, waterfalls, canyons, vulcanism, and glaciation; geological features that have been the antithesis of each other, occurring in the same region, present to a boy with great forcefulness the variations in the earth's history.

METHOD OF TRAVEL AND ROUTE

The party left Chicago in a special sleeping-car attached to the regular train. This car was used exclusively by the party throughout the entire rail journey. The route followed led through Omaha, Denver, Royal Gorge of the Arkansas River, across the Rocky Mountains by way of Tennessee Pass, Salt Lake City, and to St. Anthony, Idaho. Stops were made at Denver and Salt Lake City. At St. Anthony traveling clothes were exchanged for field clothes, each boy was provided with a saddlehorse, and the 500-mile journey overland began.

Provisions for such a journey must be carried from the start, and together with camp equipment and personal baggage require several four-horse wagons, the number required varying with the size of the party. Last season the party consisted of 15 boys, 2 instruct-

ors, and 6 employees. Twenty-seven horses were used besides a few extras hired to help over especially bad roads. Several extra saddlehorses are always taken along, as numerous accidents may happen, such as sickness, or a horse may be lost permanently by straying at night, or he may break through the crust of a hot spring while grazing and be scalded to death. All these things are liable to occur the same season. Stray horses have the habit of herding with elk, and it is well-nigh impossible to catch them.

A route was followed southeast from St. Anthony, crossing the Teton Mountains by way of Teton Pass and entering Jackson Hole near the southern end, thence north along the east flanks of the Tetons to the south entrance of Yellowstone Park. Several days were spent in camp and in making side trips in the Jackson Hole region. The first camp in the Park was on Lewis Lake, and side trips were made to Pitchstone Plateau, Heart Lake, and the Red Mountains, from which came most of the lava covering the surrounding country. From this camp the party journeyed to Yellowstone Lake, Yellowstone Canyon, Mount Washburne, Tower Falls, Mammoth Hot Springs, Lower and Upper Geyser Basins, and other side trips were made to the crest of the Gallatin Mountains and Shoshone Lake. After a last look at Old Faithful, the return journey was begun and the Park was left behind at Yellowstone, Montana. From this point the trip to Chicago was made by way of Pocatello and Cheyenne across the bad lands of Wyoming.

CHARACTER OF FIELD MATERIAL STUDIED

Climate.—The question naturally arises, What kind of field work can be done successfully with a class of this kind? Obviously nothing of such detailed nature as would satisfy a field geologist or any other field specialist should be attempted. In the following outline no attempt is made to describe fully just what was done or to give a description of the country traversed. But it is designed to show that there is an abundance of material suitable for study.

Probably the first large problem that confronts the student is the change in climate as he passes from Chicago to Utah and Idaho. He has had textbook knowledge of the situation, but this portion of the journey lays before him a partial climatic cross-

section of the United States. As he crosses Illinois, Iowa, and eastern Nebraska, he is confronted by excellent farms, well-kept farm homes, and a luxuriant growth of agricultural and natural vegetation. This luxuriance dwindles into grasslands and sage brush as he approaches the Rockies, and into barren desert, in which the human struggle for existence is successful only where irrigation prevails, as he crosses eastern Utah. In the heart of Utah he finds an oasis—made so by irrigation—and learns to appreciate the hardiness of those early pioneers who crossed the deserts to establish a new colony. It is not unusual to hear a boy say, "Let them have it. They certainly earned it." In this region he notices the distinct terraces extending along the mountain sides, and finds in Great Salt Lake the remnant of an ancient lake whose waves cut the terraces that now stand many hundreds of feet above the present lake level. What must have been the climatic conditions at that time? Did the ancient lake have an outlet? Was it always salty? What caused the change? What were the conditions at home at the time? are some of the problems that arise at once. In crossing the mountains he is confronted with the climatic change with altitude. He has read about it, but careless covering at night emphasizes the fact. He notes the tree line and barren snow-capped peaks, the abundance of trees on one side of a range and the sparsity on the other and demands an explanation. If interested in photography he notes the clear sky and clear air and seeks directions for proper exposure. If he is working for credit he is keeping notes on all he sees and following his route on the maps. In the Park he finds that the same region has experienced periods of sedimentation, vulcanism, glaciation, and hot springs. These appear at first as very conflicting climatic conditions, but their relationship becomes clear before the trip is ended.

Glacial features.—The gently rolling plains of Illinois and Iowa in contrast with the relatively flat country farther west present the depositional work of the Ice Age, and his curiosity to get onto a glacial moraine is aroused. This curiosity is satisfied by several side trips into the Teton Mountains. Here he sees and travels over the old glacial valleys, notes the characteristic U-shape given them by the glaciers, ascends them and observes the amphitheater-

shaped cirques at their head often containing small lakes which lie in the eroded rock basins, traverses the terminal moraine which encircles the mouth of the valley, and, still unsatisfied, he wants to "explore some more." Here the questions arise: What has become of the glaciers that once filled those valleys? When and why did they disappear? Was man here at the time? Did trees grow then as now? Will the glaciers ever come again? And he is not slow to tie up these problems with glacial conditions at home and the ancient lake that preceded Great Salt Lake. As he travels through Jackson Hole he is trying to solve the origin of the enormous amount of gravel that forms its floor, but by the time he has passed Jackson Lake—a large glacial lake at the north end—most of his difficulties have been cleared away. These, however are only a few of the many glacial problems that confront him.

Running water.—The broad valleys of the Mississippi, Missouri, and Platte, in contrast with the canyons of the Arkansas, Grand Lewis, and Yellowstone rivers, well illustrate for him the result of stream erosion in plains, mountains, and plateaus. The canyon of the Yellowstone probably leaves the most lasting impression. After climbing more than a thousand feet down its precipitous side and up again—in part by the use of a rope—after finding the cause of its beautiful coloring, after viewing it from many points along its brink, and realizing that the small stream flowing through it has done all the work since glacial times, he feels satisfied that his journey has been well worth while. His problems in stream erosion, however, do not end here because in passing through Hayden Valley he has noticed terraces along the valley sides similar to those around Great Salt Lake. To form these terraces the water must have been much higher than now, and Yellowstone Lake must have extended down Hayden Valley to some point near the Upper Falls. What happened to drain this Lake? With a little assistance he learns of the piracy of the Yellowstone, that the continental divide was shifted, that the drainage of Yellowstone Lake was changed from the Pacific to the Atlantic, and the falls of the Yellowstone were brought into existence. He reconstructs this ancient divide upon his map.

Mesas, buttes, natural bridges, sand bars, valley flats, fans,

fluvio-glacial deposits, terraces, and bad lands are a few of the other features that requires attention. Some demand more consideration than others and in the entire course the life relationships, especially plant and human, are emphasized more than the physiography or geology of the features themselves.

Rocks and structures.—No effort is made to study rocks in detail but during the trip the student becomes acquainted with the main classes and many specific kinds, such as igneous, sedimentary, metamorphic, and rhyolite, granite, gneiss, basalt, lava, obsidian, limestone, sandstone, etc. He learns these by constant contact with them and seeks an explanation of the conditions that produced such variations. I doubt if anyone can ask more "whys" than a boy in the field. During the journey to the field each student constructs a rough cross-section of the country from Chicago to Salt Lake City, indicating the classes of rock and the structure. In making this section he learns to recognize, not only the rock, but its position—dipping, folded, horizontal—and perhaps faulting. Another cross-section of the Tetons with their gentle western and steep eastern slope strengthens his confidence in interpretation and directs his attention to many points that might otherwise pass unnoticed. The construction of these sections leads to an explanation of mountain making and many original theories are deduced, often to be destroyed immediately by some other member of the party. It may be said here that all problems are left to the class and never solved by the instructor unless it becomes necessary. He points out errors in solutions offered and may make suggestions, but can usually bring about an agreement without answering the questions outright. A few of the larger problems presented for solution are: Explanation of terraces about Great Salt Lake; origin of Rocky, Teton, Gallatin, Absaroka, and Red mountains; explanation of Pitchstone Plateau and the whole plateau area of the Park; origin of Jackson Hole; what is the best use to which Jackson Hole can be put in the future?

Ground water.—The park is an unexcelled region for the study of hot springs, geysers, and mineral waters. The route followed presents to the student many of the minor features of this sort first, and ends with a study of such climax types as Emerald Pool,

Giant Geyser, and Old Faithful Geyser. Their origin, form, and kind of deposits, causes of the brilliant and beautiful colors are studied among the formations themselves. The student will discover for himself the differences between the terraced, calcareous formation about the Mammoth Hot Springs and the silicious deposits about the geysers. The explanation of petrified tree trunks standing erect above the surroundings, with glacial drift in the immediate vicinity, presents a situation that, at first, is hard for him to reconcile.

As previously stated, the above discussion does not pretend to cover all the field material studied. Considerable emphasis was placed upon plant life, especially ecological study. This phase of the work was in charge of Mr. W. L. Eikenberry of the University High School and was made a part of all written work and conference discussions. The deep interest of the boy in plant life and its geographic associations was apparent at all times, and the highest credit is due Mr. Eikenberry for keeping this interest at a high pitch. I do not consider that I have solved the problem of field geography, but if the establishment of this course in the University High School has contributed toward its solution I shall feel that the effort has not been in vain. Next season (1913) the same trip will be made during the early part of the summer with a second trip to Glacier National Park during the latter part. The latter trip will be made by pack train, as wagons cannot be used.

GRAMMATICAL CONCEPTS AND THEIR NAMES

ALFRED DWIGHT SHEFFIELD

Wellesley College

In his lecture on *The Educational Value of the Natural History Sciences* Huxley remarks on the difference between a popular concept and a scientific one. Popular concepts classify things by their felt likeness to typical cases; scientific concepts refer them to definitions. Ask any man "to define a beast from a reptile, and he cannot do it; but he says, 'things like a cow or a horse are beasts, and things like a frog or a lizard are reptiles.'" The scientist, on the other hand, aims at a rigorous description of *reptilia* which shall exclude such *amphibia* as fall within the loose notion "reptile." To him "classification by type is simply an acknowledgment of ignorance and a temporary device."

These words a grammarian reads with the disquieting reflection that some of his staple terms do nothing more nor less than classify by type. When, in *gentleman usher, the foul and the fair, ask that it shall appear*, he calls *gentleman* a "noun," *foul* and *fair* "adjectives," and *shall* a "subjunctive" use, he refers not to a logical definition of "subjunctive," "adjective," or "noun," but to a partial likeness between the locutions here and *typical* locutions, in which the words take these labels by virtue of concurring features of meaning, of sentence-function, and of form. The trouble with a label derived from typical instances is that it tells nothing very *certain* about any given instance. Hearing a given word called a "verb," I *may* be right in understanding that it shows all three verb-features: a notion of occurrence, predicative function, and a form answering to these sense-aspects. It may, however, be a non-typical verb, showing but one or two of these features. Indeed, we here have to do with four aspects of meaning, of which all may appear in one word, or two or more may divide their expression between words of a verb-phrase. The term "verb," therefore, applies to any word-form of a series ascending in sense-complexity about as follows:

TYPES OF VERB FORM

Verb Meaning	1. The fact and mood of predication	} Pure copula (twice 2 is 4)	} Auxiliary (<i>would</i> <i>write</i>)	} Semi-notional (<i>become</i> , <i>seem</i> , <i>render</i>)	} Typical verb (<i>writes</i>)		
	2. Tense						
	3. A general category as of cause, transition, etc. (<i>en-slave</i> , <i>magni- fy</i> , <i>christian-ize</i>)	}	} Absolute notional form (<i>writing</i>)				
	4. The kernel idea (<i>writ</i> -, <i>very</i> -)						

To label a "verb" with any regard to these distinctions we must awkwardly piece out the term: "auxiliary verb," "periphrastic verb," "verb of incomplete predication." And with distinctions of syntax we meet fresh trouble in talking unequivocally. To classify an English word uniting verb meaning with noun function we must hesitate between three terms: "infinitive," "gerund," "supine"—all terms that apply *typically* to verb-forms in Latin.*

The makeshifts to which such a nomenclature puts us naturally prompt the question whether the modern grammarian should not scrutinize words for himself, take a clean slate, and set about devising labels that shall satisfy the "scientist." Words are complexes offering three features for classification: (1) content, or independent meaning, (2) function, or use in the sentence, and (3) form. And each of these features presents a workable set of categories. Thus as to content a word means either a thing, or an attribute of quality, behavior, or relation; and its meaning is either descriptive, as in common nouns and notional adjectives, verbs, and adverbs, or simply designative, as in proper nouns and demonstratives. Through this grouping will of course run cross-divisions of "modal content": number, tense, degree. As to function, a word is either (1) a sentence-word (interjection, vocative, imperative); (2) a particle (preposition, auxiliary, conjunction), *marking* sentence-relation for notional words that it presupposes; or (3) a term of syntax, *bearing* the relation—subject, predicate, attributive, or adverbial. As to form, a word may take either mutation or affixes, these being either flecional, expressing sentence-relations directly, or as in—*slav-ery*, *en-slave*—derivative,

*In English, lacking so frequently the formal marks, we pretend to parse "by function only"; but of course we can do nothing of the kind with terms which, resting on content and form as well, oblige us to talk of "*nouns* used attributively," of "*adjectives* used substantively," etc.

making certain sentence-relations forefelt by the word's syntactic habit.¹

It is evident that no label really tells what "part of speech" a word is, unless it tells us what category it answers to under each of these three headings. The term, that is, should show three elements, designating classes respectively of content, of function, and of form. Where, as often in English, distinctive form is lacking, the third element would of course be dropped. An ideal nomenclature for words would then resemble that for chemical complexes. Thus in

sub-carbon-ate
hypo-sulph-ite
hypo-chlor-ous
per-chlor-ic
chlor-ide
nitr-ate

prefixes, stems, and suffixes refer to three different sets of categories, so that any term varies flexibly in order to apply throughout to the particular complex under view; whereas a term like "adjective" points rigidly to the typical complex, and in particular applications must get part of its reference contradicted, as when we say it is "used substantively." One need but contrast with these terms from chemistry our "preposition," "auxiliary verb," "predicate adjective," "objective complement"—labels that tell little without running to tedious lengths—to realize that terms give a maximum of information for the speech-material used, only when their stems and affixes are codified.²

¹ The question will here rise: When are we dealing with different forms of the same word, when with different words? For we have to do (1) with roots + affixes, as in *box-ing*, *box-es*; (2) with total changes, as between *I*, *me*; *am*, *be*; and (3) with distinctions conveyed by the context, as in *my box of books*, *I box my books*, *a box factory*.

² A reform so radical as the one here suggested may not seem "within the range of practical politics," but it would not be without precedent. The nomenclature for igneous rocks having grown by mere otiose assent around a clumsy traditional system, four American petrographers published in 1903 a brand new nomenclature, based on quantitative chemical analysis, and on a codifying of the syllables composing their terms. This system, the *Quantitative Classification of Igneous Rocks*, had in 1909, gained such currency as to command its inclusion in *Webster's New International Dictionary* (article "petrography").

The new names, however, might easily achieve a specious precision with an actual loss of distinctions that the old type-names conserve. If behind "noun," "adjective," "verb," we have *conceptual* types, to which as abstract patterns our ways of thinking conform—just as perceived objects conform to the geometrical types "sphere," "cone," "rectangle," etc.—we cannot treat these terms as mere grammarian's figments. So far as they answer to the notions "thing," "quality," "act," they reflect a metaphysic native to the mind, which resolves the fleeting world into these primordial categories.¹ But they do not so answer completely. Abstract nouns are not names of "things," nor are such verbs as *candere*, *lie*, *shine*, *remain* clearly names of "acts." Inflected speech, therefore, extends its types of word-form beyond what might seem called for by the kinds of idea. Since goodness is not a "thing," the noun-forms *bonitas*, *bonitatem* need never have appeared, if the adjective-forms *bonum*, *boni*, *bona* had—like Chinese *hao*—served in syntax for both *goodness* and *good*. If, then, as Sweet says, "inflection is practically nothing but a device for turning a noun into an adjective or adverb,"² do we understand *vir tantā bonitate*, *belli gloria* as identical in sense with *vir tam bonus* and *gloria bellica*? Or does an ideal distinction inhere in noun and adjective as such? Such questions must get answers before we can venture upon classifying words with names that stamp express implications between their content and function, and their form.

If every *systematic* item in words has import, then something of import must attach to the suffixes (as in *great-ness*, *great-ly*) by which a given notion is conformed to more than one cardinal part of speech. Is this an import purely of function, or of ideal form, or of value? According to Van Ginneken it is one of value. Our word categories, he says,³ take their rise in existential judgments, and reflect degrees and kinds of conviction. Verb and noun answer to the distinction of absolute and relative existence; noun and adjective, to that of real and potential. Stated thus baldly

¹ See H. Bergson, *L'Évolution créatrice*, pp. 325-28.

² *Philolog. Soc. Trans.*, 1875-76, p. 493.

³ Jac. Van Ginneken, *Principes de linguistique psychologique*, Pt. 1.

his view may command less respect than it deserves; but it seems to read into grammar values that could be felt only in mature reasoning. Such categories as "absolute" and "relative" arise not in the mind's spontaneous reaction upon what is before it, but in a reflective *interpretation* of experience. They presuppose an interest too sophisticated to have been operative in the early days of speech. A truer view is perhaps that of Sechehaye,² according to whom noun, adjective, verb, and adverb show "thing," "quality," "act," and "manner," as *categories of the imagination*, to which all ideas are assimilated. Thus where an idea of quality takes noun-forms (*boni-tās, great-ness*) it is because when thought in relations that are associated with ideas of things, quality is expressed *under the aspect of a thing*. Hence *belli gloria, man of such goodness* have not the same meaning as *gloria bellica, so good a man*, and grammatical terms that would here point to content must recognize the formal types, "noun," "adjective," etc., as imposing upon the root-notion *ideal categories of content* that differ from its logical category.

Besides content and function, words carry a third kind of import, springing from the *speaker's concern* with what he says. With this import we reach beyond the expressive scope of detached words to that of sentences. Sentences and clauses take in predication a sort of psychic stress, marking their *relevance* to the purposive concern that prompts their utterance. Where this concern makes question of verb-form, we talk of *mood*, but some purpose always energizes the sentence-thought, whether it takes expression in mood or otherwise. A "mood-force," answering to some category of the will, inheres in sentence and clause as such: it is simply sentence-value considered with reference to its *kind*. Its varieties appear in the downright attitude of "telling," in the non-committal one of "assuming," in the attitudes of asking, commanding, and exclaiming. Here, then, is a conception apart from which the terms "sentence" and "mood" remain vague. In the "classes of sentence"—assertive, interrogative, imperative, exclamative—grammar recognizes certain types of formula expressive of this modal purport, but it attempts no valid definition of "sentence"

² Ch. A. Sechehaye, *Programme et méthodes de la linguistique théorique*, p. 238.

in terms thereof, and it recognizes the purport as "modal" only in verbs. Mood-force, however, is the dynamic principle in every sentence, as against its static meaning;¹ and it may be conveyed by word-order, (*is he good? how good he is!*) or by special modal adverbs (*perhaps, of course, etc.*).² As to sentence-value, then, we have three conceptions to keep distinct: (1) "modal force," which coincides with (2) logical "modality," only when narrowed to a concern with status as regards fact; and (3) "mood," or aspect of verb-form expressing modal force.

Sentence-value offers yet another set of distinctions. The sentence stands to word or phrase as judgment to concept, and since a concept sums within itself the work of its constitutive judgments, it carries their predication implicitly. Where the concept-name is a single word (*man, good, sinner*) this predicative force seems at zero or wholly latent, and the concept is felt as inert matter-for-thought. But the analytic matching of concepts with words must proceed largely in terms of improvised "propositional names"³ (*man talking, good weather, sin against God*), which show predication in various degrees of articulateness. An amplified sentence, therefore, discloses (1) the explicit predication that imparts its sentence-status as a whole; (2) explicit but subordinate predications; and (3) nearly or quite implicit predications.

Sentence-value, then, lies in the speaker's concern with his utterance. Modal force has its distinctions in the *nature* of that concern; predicative force, in its *degree of immediacy*. The differences of force between a clause, an appositive phrase, and an attributive adjective are differences that maintain within the sentence an adjustment of ideas answering to perspective. Insensibility to its gradations is answerable for depressing faults in a

¹ See my *Grammar and Thinking* (Putnam, 1912), pp. 26-29, 177-78.

² Grammar should take more precise account of the difference in adverbial terms between such as modify the whole predication (*she doubtless smiled*), and such as modify only its notional content (*she smiled cordially*). The former really modifies the copula implied in the verb. A conditional clause has a like effect. In *if you are right, I am wrong*, the if-clause is not a modifier of *wrong*; but its truth is conveyed as standing in a special relation to the other clause's truth. We might, almost, call it a "modal adverbial" clause.

³ Bertrand Russell, *Principles of Mathematics*, I, 49 f.

pupil's writing—for the lack of saliency in sense-items most directly relevant, for the flatness of the whole thing: all qualifications lying, as it were, in the same plane, with nothing focalized between the two extremes of unstressed attributives and crassly explicit clauses.

Grammar therefore should name clauses and clause-equivalents in *degrees of "predicative force"* about as follows:¹

1. CO-CLAUSE (co-ordinate with main clause):
He must increase: I must decrease.
God made the country, and man made the town.
2. SUB-CLAUSE:
Since he must increase, I must decrease.
He who hesitates is lost. We believe he was a traitor.
When John had been disposed of, the class began work.
3. ABSOLUTE PHRASE OR ABRIDGED CLAUSE:
John disposed of, the class began work.
The vote was carried, only three dissenting.
I shall be present, weather permitting.
The order is for surrender, officers to keep their side-arms.
If guilty, he shall die. When in London, buy cravats. Believe him to be a traitor.
4. APPOSITIVE PHRASE OR WORD:
Ready and determined, Sulla watched their approach.
Hearing his name, Samuel rose.
Sulla, victor, now offered peace.
He owned himself beaten.
 ATTRIBUTIVE PHRASE OR WORD:
Guilty soul; the listening Samuel; man of sin; box kite.

Two reflections seem pressed home by this probing among grammatical concepts. One is that language itself classifies by type, patterning its forms not on general definitions but on immediate analogies, and the grammarian has the peculiar task of applying the logic of science to a matter already wrought upon by this native logic. The other is that choice among grammatical terms is no mere matter of names; for the terms commit us to definite views of grammatical facts.

¹I have profited by an effective tabular scheme for "clause-reduction" by Associate Professor Josephine M. Burnham of Wellesley.

HIGH-SCHOOL READING: THE NEWARK PLAN

GRACE THOMPSON
Free Public Library, Newark, N.J.

More than half of the pupils who enter the high schools of the larger American cities have never handled critically as many books as are found on high-school library shelves. They have learned to read in primary schools; read the required books in the grammar grades; become familiar with school or classroom libraries, and possibly used the children's room of a public library; there acquaintance with books ceased for the obvious reason that first-generation Americans do not find a library at home. But, having acquired the ability to read, they do not and cannot stop reading. Their taste is being gradually formed or deformed by the reading of cheap newspapers and cheaper literature at home and on the streets. The corner candy-store sells nickel weeklies and lurid paper-bound books containing tales of thrilling adventure and continuous excitement. Penny dailies provide romance, scandal, and shallow philosophy, until the ability to read becomes more of a danger than a blessing. The result is apparent when boys who cannot be interested in *Ivanhoe* are found with *A Boy on the Curb*, or, *The Secret of a Treasury Note* among their schoolbooks. High-school teachers insist that the average entering student cannot name ten worthy books.

The teacher in the high school is, then, confronted with two problems. He must teach the use of books, and he must create a taste for good reading. Unless our high schools do something like this for their graduates, the four years will be wasted.

The English department of the Newark High School, realizing these conditions, began some years ago to compile a list of books for distribution to the pupils, and to buy the books listed for the high-school library shelves. Year by year, as experience dictated, the teachers added to and eliminated from this list until it reached its present form, a thirty-page pamphlet, *Reading for Pleasure and*

Profit, A List of Certain Books Which Young People Find Entertaining, Being Chiefly Books Which Older Readers Enjoyed When They Were Young, published by the Free Public Library. The list is the tangible expression of genuine co-operation between the high school and the library. In 1909 the library offered to annotate and print the list, and to provide copies for distribution. The library is careful to buy enough copies to provide for the demand, and to keep them in a special case at the main library reserved for high-school students.

The list was at first distributed to the several classes in sheets. Experience has shown that the list as a whole is more highly prized by the students. Receiving this list in the first year and noting books read through the course, they possess at graduation an enjoyable record of their own reading for four years.

From fifty to one hundred books are suggested for each year. By actually sending pupils to the shelves to select a book from those suggested, overcoming inertia in some and a possible timidity in others, the reading habit is often developed. The student has an opportunity to handle and to examine carefully a great many books that are new to him, and to discover his own taste in reading.

Each student in each term is to report to his instructor in English on one book of fiction, one of non-fiction, and one poem, read during the term, from the list provided. The list from which he is to choose is broad. For the first term, when the desire for reading must to an extent be created, the list is longer and broader than in the succeeding terms. Strange would be the boy or the girl who in this alcove would find nothing to catch the eye and stay the hand.

SEA ADVENTURE

Kidnapped, ROBERT LOUIS STEVENSON.

Captains Courageous, RUDYARD KIPLING.

PIONEER LIFE

The Last of the Mohicans, JAMES FENIMORE COOPER.

The Deerslayer, JAMES FENIMORE COOPER.

NEW ENGLAND LIFE

The House of the Seven Gables, NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE.

Twice-told Tales, NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE.

BRIGHT YOUNG PEOPLE

Off the Skelligs, JEAN INGELOW.

A Jolly Fellowship, FRANK R. STOCKTON.

GIRL LIFE

An Old-Fashioned Girl, LOUISA M. ALCOTT.

Little Women, LOUISA M. ALCOTT.

The Biography of a Prairie Girl, ELEANOR GATES.

The Doctor's Daughter, REBECCA SOPHIA CLARKE.

A Summer in Leslie Goldthwaite's Life, ADELINE D. T. WHITNEY.

Real Folks, ADELINE D. T. WHITNEY.

Square Pegs, ADELINE D. T. WHITNEY.

BOY LIFE

Tom Brown's School Days, THOMAS HUGHES.

Against Heavy Odds, HJALMAR H. BOYESSEN.

Modern Vikings, HJALMAR H. BOYESSEN.

Boyhood in Norway, HJALMAR H. BOYESSEN.

Two Little Savages, ERNEST THOMPSON-SETON.

Being a Boy, CHARLES DUDLEY WARNER.

Boys of Other Countries, BAYARD TAYLOR.

Indian Boyhood, CHARLES A. EASTMAN.

Phaeton Rogers, ROSSITER JOHNSON.

Dab Kinzer: The Story of a Growing Boy, WILLIAM OSBORN STODDARD.

A collection of interesting books in the first year, the list increases in literary and critical value to the fourth year, presupposing on the part of the student a proportionate increase in appreciation of style and spirit.

PEOPLE WORTH KNOWING

Life of Alfred Tennyson, HALLAM TENNYSON.

Letters and Memorials of Jane Welsh Carlyle.

Reminiscences, THOMAS CARLYLE.

Praeterita, JOHN RUSKIN.

Anne Gilchrist, Her Life and Writings, Edited by H. H. GILCHRIST.

Autobiography of Harriet Martineau.

Letters of Celia Thaxter.

Life and Letters of George Eliot.

Life of William Morris, JOHN WILLIAM MACKAIL.

Vailima Letters, ROBERT LOUIS STEVENSON.

Life of Alice Freeman Palmer, G. H. PALMER.

The Gentlest Art, EDWARD VERRALL LUCAS.

Book of the Sonnet, LEIGH HUNT.

Heroes and Hero Worship, THOMAS CARLYLE.

Virginibus Puerisque, ROBERT LOUIS STEVENSON.

The Life of the Spirit in the Modern English Poets, VIDA D. SCUDDER.

English Composition, BARRETT WENDELL.

By comparing this list with the required English work of secondary schools, it will be seen that the selection is by no means confined to collateral reading, and that no attempt is made to keep the student to one period or one form of literature. For example, in the first half-year high-school pupils study Hawthorne's *Tanglewood Tales* and Bryant's *Translation of the Odyssey*. The list of eighty-five titles includes only three stories and ten descriptive works on the mythology, folklore, and customs of the Greeks, and ten poems embodying Greek myths.

"The mark of high-school teaching is uniformity; the mark of genius is difference. The slogan of high-school teaching is drill, repetition. The essential of literary enjoyment is surprise, novelty, movement. The natural stimulus of good reading is in its creation of a desire to read the book through. The scholar's method is to hold you to the book so long that you are sick and tired of it." So said Principal McAndrew in a recent address. There is no doubt that the present intensive laboratory method of teaching English, perhaps necessary with classes and curriculum overcrowded, does not make even Greek literature the source of joy it should be to the average young person. If all reading is confined to one subject, and no other and lighter reading suggested, books grow distasteful by very insistence, thereby defeating the probable purpose of the study of literature. Reading from choice from such an inclusive list allows the pupil to follow his own bent, and so creates a prejudice for, instead of against, the book.

Having read and enjoyed these books, the pupil can, and often does, read something better. Certainly the reading of six pieces of genuine literature every year for four years—and we can expect little more from the growing boys and girls of this busy world—ought consciously or unconsciously to give such a reader a basis for judgment and comparison. Teachers who have used this list believe that it does one other and better thing; it creates a positive distaste for poor and vulgar forms of writing.

THE EIGHTEENTH MICHIGAN CLASSICAL CONFERENCE

FRANCIS W. KELSEY
The University of Michigan

The Eighteenth Michigan Classical Conference was held in Ann Arbor March 26, 27, 28, and 29, 1912, in connection with the annual meeting of the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club. The joint session of Tuesday evening was held in the Auditorium of the Ann Arbor High School; the other sessions, in the Memorial Building of the University of Michigan.

A brief business meeting was held at 4 o'clock on Thursday afternoon. It was voted to formulate the working plan of the conferences, so as to define more clearly the duties of the officers, and a committee of three was raised with instructions to report at the next Conference.

At the close of Professor D'Ooge's address on Friday afternoon Professor George A. Williams, of Kalamazoo College, presented the following resolution:

WHEREAS, Professor M. L. D'Ooge has tendered his resignation of the chair of the Greek language and literature in the University of Michigan, to take effect at the close of this academic year:

We, members of the Classical Conference, desire to express to him our high appreciation of the great value of the fifty years of service which as teacher in school and university he has made memorable by his inspiring instruction, and of the large contribution which he has made to classical learning by his successful labors as Director of the American School at Athens, by his skilful editing of Greek masterpieces, by his learned work in *The Acropolis*, and by his numerous addresses on classical themes; and we beg to assure him of our sincere wishes for his happiness in the years of leisure now awaiting him.

The resolution was seconded by Professor J. T. Ewing, of Alma College, and others, and was passed by a rising vote. Professor D'Ooge responded briefly; an engrossed copy of the resolution was afterward prepared and delivered to him.

The program follows, with references and abstracts.¹

PROGRAM

Tuesday Evening, March 26

Joint Session of the Classical Conference and the Ann Arbor Art Association.

Presiding Officer

THEODORE W. KOCH, University of Michigan
President of the Ann Arbor Art Association

1. Lecture: The Excavations and Discoveries at Cyrene in 1910-11.

F. W. KELSEY.

By way of introduction the ancient sources for the history of Cyrene were indicated; its political and commercial importance, and the discoveries before 1910, were briefly characterized.

The excavation of Cyrene was first proposed by Professor Charles Eliot Norton, the founder of the Archaeological Institute of America, but many years elapsed before conditions were sufficiently favorable to warrant the undertaking. In December, 1909, the Council of the Institute authorized the taking of the preliminary steps. In May, 1910, an iradé was granted by the Turkish government, and Richard Norton was requested to make a more careful inspection of the site than had been possible in previous reconnaissances; an account of this journey was published, with illustrations, in the *Bulletin of the Archaeological Institute of America* (II, 57-67) under the title: "From Bengazi to Cyrene."

In order to defray the cost of the work in the earlier stages the sum of fifteen thousand dollars a year for three years was made available in subscriptions and pledges. The direction of the undertaking was placed in the hands of a Commission of the Archaeological Institute consisting of Allison V. Armour, of New York; Arthur Fairbanks, of the Museum of Fine Arts, Boston; and D. G. Hogarth, of the Ashmolean Museum, Oxford.

The staff organized for the excavation consisted of Herbert Fletcher De Cou, Joseph Clark Hoppin, Charles Densmore Curtis, and Lawrence Mott, Americans, and Dr. Arthur F. Sladden, an Englishman, with Richard Norton as director in charge of the operations. In October, 1910, Mr. Armour conveyed the party in his yacht to the landing-place nearest the site, and also transported the supplies. The many difficulties incident to commencing work of the kind in an inhospitable country were met, and overcome.

Of especial value in establishing friendly relations with the natives were the skill and generous help afforded by Dr. Sladden, who had a "consulting room" and surgery first in a tent, later in a large and well-lighted ancient tomb; in seven months he treated 721 cases, recording 1,229 visits of the natives.

The work of excavation continued, with interruptions, from the end of October, 1910, to April, 1911. On March 11 Mr. De Cou was shot and instantly killed by

¹ Commencing with the Classical Conference of 1913 a series of addresses will be given upon the relations of the modern subjects to the ancient. The first address, on "The Paradox of Oxford" will be given by Mr. Paul E. More, editor of *The Nation*, on the evening of April 4, in University Hall, Ann Arbor.

Arabs "who had never had any relations or dealing whatever" with any member of the expedition; "they did not belong to the neighborhood, but were hired and sent from more than fifty miles away to commit the murder." The time has not yet come for a final statement in regard to the motives which actuated the hiring of the assassins by utter strangers, who, there is reason to believe, desired to drive the excavators from the country by killing the director, but through a misunderstanding caused the death of Mr. De Cou instead.

The results of the excavation, considered as a first season's work, far exceeded expectations. Though the architectural remains unearthed are not without interest, of greatest importance are the sculptures; among these is a head of Athena of the best period of Greek sculpture, and a headless statue above life size resembling the Nike of Samothrace. Many minor objects were discovered, including some three thousand complete, or nearly complete, votive figurines, and a number of inscriptions. The inscriptions are soon to be published in the *American Journal of Archaeology*; the finds are briefly treated, with illustrations, in the *Bulletin of the Archaeological Institute* (II, 141-67, plates XLVII-LXXXI; Dr. Sladden's Report on the medical work follows, pp. 168-76).

The campaign of 1911-12 was fully planned and the excavators were on their way to the site when they were stopped at Malta by the breaking out of the war between Italy and Turkey; unfortunately it has not yet become possible to resume operations.

Wednesday Afternoon, March 27

Presiding Officer

PROFESSOR GEORGE A. WILLIAMS, Kalamazoo College

2. Some Roman Ruins in Tunisia.¹

PROFESSOR JOHN G. WINTER, University of Michigan.

Published, with 11 illustrations, in *Records of the Past*, XI (1912), 111-24.

3. High School Latin from the Point of View of the Second-Year Pupil.

MISS EVA P. CARNES, South Haven High School.

Published in *Journal of the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club*, Forty-seventh Meeting (1912), 35-41.

4. A Method in Second-Year Latin.

MISS HELEN B. MUIR, Ypsilanti State Normal College.

Journal of the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club, Forty-seventh Meeting (1912), 41-48.

5. Discussion of Papers 3 and 4.

MISS ALICE PORTER, Ann Arbor High School.

Miss Porter's remarks were followed by a spirited and fruitful general discussion, which was resumed on Thursday afternoon after the paper by Miss Allison (p. 197). It was decided to continue the discussions at the Conference of 1913; a committee was appointed to arrange the topics and secure speakers.

¹ Illustrated with the stereopticon.

6. The Views of Quintilian on the Causes of the Corruption of Oratory.

PROFESSOR WILBER J. GREER, Hope College.

The fact that Quintilian's views were in any degree determined by the educational theories and conflicts of his own and preceding times has been largely overlooked—a fact which makes all the more striking the claim of von Arnim (*Dio von Prusa*, pp. 91 ff., 134, etc.) that Quintilian was a champion of the practical education advocated by the neo-Sophists. The paper upheld von Arnim's view and endeavored to show that Quintilian's explanations of the causes of the corruption of oratory in his day proceeded from this point of view.

As a schoolmaster Quintilian believed that the decline of oratory was due to faulty methods of education. In the time of Cicero and the so-called *veteres* oratory was sound. At that time it was made to serve the purely practical end of victory in the law court or in the assembly. Its watchword was *utilitas*. After Cicero's time declamation came increasingly into vogue, an exercise which Quintilian regarded as originally meant to train for speaking in real contests in the forum.

But the origin and purpose of declamation were soon forgotten and the ignorance of teachers regarding its origin, and the licenses they took in changing its character, became the chief causes of the corruption of oratory. It was no longer a "practical" exercise, but a vain elocutionary display, unfitting one for real contests in the forum; the new watchword was *ostentatio*. Of this Quintilian disapproved, as Cicero and all those under strong Sophistic influence would have done under like conditions.

7. Some Instances of Blood-Rain in Mediaeval Records.

PROFESSOR JOHN S. P. TATLOCK, University of Michigan.

To be published.

8. Light on New Testament Problems from a Manuscript of the Gospels in the Freer Collection.¹

PROFESSOR H. A. SANDERS, University of Michigan.

This paper presented in concise form several conclusions which are more fully stated, with the evidence supporting them, in *University of Michigan Studies*, "Humanistic Series," Vol. IX, Part I (1912).

Thursday Afternoon, March 28

Presiding Officer

PROFESSOR B. L. D'OOGHE, State Normal College

9. The University Collection of Inscriptions Recently Mounted on the Walls of the Stairways of the Memorial Building.¹

F. W. KELSEY.

The epigraphic collections of the University of Michigan fall into two classes, originals and reproductions.

Under reproductions are comprised squeezes, rubs, and photographs of inscriptions at Pompeii, in the Vatican, Capitoline, and Terme Collections in Rome, and in the Naples Museum. These are now assembled in the Memorial Building and in the near future will be made available for study.

¹ Illustrated with the stereopticon.

The original inscriptions comprise tablets and a few other inscribed objects of marble, three painted inscriptions (one Etruscan) upon cinerary urns, a mosaic, and eleven pieces of lead pipe inscribed with raised letters. There is also a collection of brick stamps from Rome, which (including incomplete as well as complete examples) represent more than 250 types, the number of specimens being above 400. They were treated in two papers, by Mr. H. M. Gelston and Mr. I. B. Hunter, at the Classical Conference of 1905.

The tablets mounted on the walls of the stairways in the Memorial Building number 360; of these 345 are Latin, 15 Greek. The greater part formed the collection of Giuseppe de Criscio, parish priest of Pozzuoli, who for half a century pursued with ardor the study of the antiquities of the region. One hundred and forty-eight of the De Criscio inscriptions were published in the tenth volume of the *Corpus Inscriptionum Latinarum*, others in the eighth volume of the *Ephemeris Epigraphica*, and others still in the *American Journal of Archaeology* for 1898; a few are yet unpublished. While the majority of the inscriptions are sepulchral, other classes are represented. Of especial interest is a dedication to the Emperor Augustus set up in his lifetime; there are a number of tablets commemorating the lives and service of officers and marines of the imperial fleet stationed at Misenum, and preserving the names of galleys.

Of the tablets from Rome, now mounted with the others, an account was given at the Conference of 1911 (*School Review*, XX, 177).

All the inscriptions were the gift of friends of the University; Professor Walter Dennison conducted the negotiations for their purchase and arranged the exportation from Italy. A volume on the inscriptions, by Professor Dennison, is in preparation.

10. Bridging Bryce's Twenty Years.

MISS GENEVIEVE DUFFY, Detroit Central High School.

The reference in the title of this paper is to the following passage in a Phi Beta Kappa address given by Hon. James Bryce in Ann Arbor, April 4, 1911:

"It is much to be regretted that the number of men who are studying Latin is becoming small, and the number of those studying Greek, infinitesimal. I venture to predict, however, that if the universities can safely pass the danger period that is threatening us now, in twenty or thirty years there will be a great reaction in the attitude toward these ancient literatures. The pressure of intense competition in business will diminish in the next generation; the great corporations will have largely completed their exploitation of natural resources; gainful occupations will relatively decrease in importance; the ideals of men will return to those subjects in which the ancient literatures contribute to make life rich and enjoyable, and the study of the classics will revive."

The speaker urged, as a means of safeguarding Latin in the immediate future, a more skilful adjustment of the course of study to the mental development and needs of the student, particularly in the earlier years; in particular, the speaker maintained that Caesar is not well adapted for the first Latin reading of pupils who have had only one year of Latin.

11. Possibilities.

MISS MAUDE PARSONS, Kalamazoo State Normal School.

"In the first place, are all teachers of the classics as enthusiastic as they should be, and has not the lukewarm attitude of some done as much harm to the cause as the

arguments of opponents? For my part, I have no sympathy with any teacher who is a pessimist, particularly a teacher of the classics. Unfortunately there are some who though outwardly enthusiastic are always complaining in private of the present state of affairs. They seem to be doing nothing, however, to improve the situation.

"In preparing this paper, I asked thirty or more teachers of other branches and a number outside of the teaching profession if they would take less Latin and Greek were it in their power to choose again in their high-school and college courses; with the exception of one, all said that they certainly would not take less, and several said they would devote more time to the classics. When we find so many parents and teachers of this opinion why is it that so many now-a-days do not take up Latin at all, and so many lose interest after the first year, so that few in comparison with the number who commenced Latin complete a four years' course? Although the blame is variously placed, I believe it belongs many times to the teacher. Are we doing all that is possible for us to do in promoting and advancing our work?

"Altogether too much fuss, it seems to me, is made over the work of the second year; if less talking were done and more of something else to make that year attractive, I fail to see why it should not be as agreeable as any year. It seems to me to present very great possibilities.

"Professor B. L. D'Ooge's *Beginning Latin Book*, which I have been using the past year, has a short dedication, which impressed me: 'This little work has been dedicated to my small son who has taught me many things which ought to be said and many which should be left unsaid.' In these few words in my judgment lies the keynote of the success of a good teacher.

"There is no department in the high school that needs good illustrative material so much as the Latin department. The Latin room ought to be equipped with good pictures of classical subjects, good reference books, charts and maps; the pupils should be taught how to use them, and encouraged to do so, being shown the advantage of such knowledge in connection with their other work.

"A small bulletin board in the corner of the room, preferably near the door where the pupils pass in and out, has been found in our school an excellent place for clippings of interest or references to magazine articles, for example concerning the Olympic games, excavations around Rome, Ostia, Herculaneum, and Crete and other subjects too numerous to mention. The student should be made to realize the close connection between the ancient times about which he is studying, and the present.

"During the past year, a Classical Club in our school has proved interesting and instructive not only to the members of the Latin classes but to some others who were admitted to membership because they were interested in the work we were doing. We have had two meetings a month, in one of which a literary program of classical subjects was presented, in the other we have devoted our time to the study of the private life of the Greeks and Romans. This meeting has been of a social nature. We have played Roman games, and a mythological game, and learned some Latin songs. Several times some of the students have contrived simple costumes and sometimes we have had simple Roman refreshments, such as coarse brown bread, milk, and honey.

"The spirit of play has so taken possession of the work in the grades, and domestic science and art are taught in a fashion so different from that which has prevailed or can prevail in Latin classes, that (in the language of the vernacular) 'it is up to us' who are teaching this subject not only actually to teach Latin but to make it so attractive that the pupil will find it as full of life as any other subject. But please

do not think that I believe that Latin can be learned without hard work in this generation any more than in the preceding ones. The times have changed and we must use tact in meeting their requirements.

"To illustrate work in class, boys mechanically inclined have at different times made engines of war, and one time an excellent 'Caesar's bridge' was made. The boys would gather around it, out of class, and examine and discuss every part of it; it goes without saying that they could translate the passage better in consequence. As a rule boys who take much work in manual training are not found in the Latin classes, but occasionally one does stray in and he can be very helpful and ought to be encouraged along that line.

"Many times, in answer to inquiries made concerning the scholarship of pupils about to graduate it has been my pleasure to note that the honor pupils were those who had had four years of Latin; almost invariably I have found that those who did the best work for me in Virgil were the best in English literature. I feel like congratulating myself that even if the Latin classes are smaller than they should be, after the first two years at least, as a rule I am dealing with the best students in the whole school.

"The possibilities rest largely with the teacher. Judging from the teachers of the classics with whom it has been my good fortune to be associated, I am bound to believe that they will be increasingly realized."

12. Latin for the Average High-School Student.

MISS ELIZABETH L. WILCOX, Jackson High School.

Journal of the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club, Forty-seventh Meeting, pp. 48-51.

13. Discussions of the Papers Numbered 10-12.

MISS CLARA J. ALLISON, Hastings High School.

We have listened to a threefold discussion of our subject. The first paper afforded a general survey of the field of secondary Latin; the second discusses the teacher's duty in this field, while the third directs attention to the changed conditions which both teacher and pupil of today must meet. Miss Wilcox has laid especial emphasis upon the fact that our work is neither with the trivial nor with the insignificant, but with that which is fundamental in all things educational; and this is a conviction necessary before we can meet Miss Parsons' requirement of being "teachers who will vitalize our subject."

We are in the midst of an era of democracy in education as elsewhere; our classes are no longer filled with an intellectual aristocracy, but with pupils of all sorts and conditions, and we owe them the privilege of being trained for citizenship in that state of living which has hitherto been the prerogative of the favored few. To every pupil, however unpromising, who enters our classes we must afford the means of attaining whatever benefits are to be received from the study of Latin. When these pupils fail, dulness is not the cause; rather they are not fitted by inheritance of previous training with the little direction they receive, to do the exacting work demanded by Latin.

The remedy therefore lies not so much in changing present requirements as in seeing that pupils are so directed that they can pass the first two years with some feeling of achievement. We are not so much in need of new subject-matter, nor yet of a lesser amount, as we are of additional periods in the first year, during which the class working with the teacher may learn to conserve their efforts, studying sentences clause by clause, coming to recognize the importance of connectives and verbs in

revealing the thought, rather than groping about in what to them is a confused jumble of words and forms, wasting time in mere stringing together of words at random.

Efficiency is the slogan of today. Decide in your own minds whether in the Latin class you can best gain this through a change from our present subject-matter or, if you have your choice, by careful personal supervision of your pupils' study as well as their recitation. The plan is feasible and has been tried out in one school. In that school one additional class period per day (all beginners being required to keep this hour free for the work in Latin) has served for two classes of beginners, and the results from an economical viewpoint have been such as to justify, in the eyes of the administration, the arrangement of the extra hour.

14. The Statue Lately Discovered on the Site of Antium.¹

PROFESSOR HERBERT RICHARD CROSS, University of Michigan.

The speaker presented a number of slides showing the nearest parallels to the type of the so-called Fanciulla d'Anzio, interpreting the statue as a work of the early Hellenistic period. The question whether the statue represents a youth or a maiden was not decided, although the evidence brought forward seemed to sustain the view that a youthful priestess is represented.

Friday Afternoon, March 29

Presiding Officer

PRESIDENT EMERITUS JAMES B. ANGELL, University of Michigan

15. The Crane, the Classics, and the Boy.

PROFESSOR E. D. DIMMENT, Hope College.

16. The Classical Club in College Work.

PROFESSOR JOHN T. EWING, Alma College.

Three important aims of the college course in the classics are the attainment of reading power, the acquisition of knowledge of ancient life, and the appreciation of the quality of that life as an influence for culture. There are three difficulties in the way of the attainment of these aims, namely, the limited time in recitation, the formality of recitation, the limitation of independent work. It is proposed to devote the recitation periods in the main to the development of reading power and to utilize the "classical club" in realizing the other aims of classical instruction. As reasons for this suggestion it is maintained that the club would encourage independent work, that its freedom would be stimulating, and illustrative material could be more conveniently used. In the conducting of such an organization it is suggested, first, that student members be put in charge of its affairs with the exception of the preparation of the programs; second, that the programs be so arranged as either to supplement the work of the classroom, or to touch matters entirely outside of its scope; third, that variety should be sought through the preparation of special programs; fourth, that extended courses in the history of art, private life, etc., may be pursued, if preferred; fifth, that recognition should be made of work of satisfactory quality, preferably in honor points.

¹Illustrated with the stereopticon.

17. *The Ligue pour la culture française.*

PROFESSOR J. R. EFFINGER, University of Michigan.

The *Ligue pour la culture française* is an organization formed in France to defend humanistic, particularly classical, studies against the assaults of philistinism. Professor Effinger's paper is published in full in the *School Review*, XX, 401-6.

18. The Humanizing of the Latin Teacher.

MISS FRANCES J. BROWN, Port Huron High School.

Published in *The Classical Journal*, VIII, 109-14, and *Journal of the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club*, Forty-seventh Meeting (1912), pp. 51-56.

19. The Teaching of Virgil in Relation to the Development of the Appreciation of Literature.

PROFESSOR F. C. DEMOREST, Albion College.

The appreciation of Virgil's *Aeneid* is the capstone, and the human development of the pupil which comes from its appreciation is the goal, of the Latin teaching of the high-school course. Such a goal will have an enlightening and humanizing effect on all the earlier studies of the Latin course. Then, too, something of the Greek spirit must be infused into the Latin study, even as it was infused into Latin life and literature.

The appreciation of meaning is the thing of vital importance; meaning of word, of phrase, sentence, paragraph, or reference, as it appeared to the intellect of the Roman. This will materially aid in the mastery of forms even, for that which fills the form fixes the form in the memory. To this end the teacher must be a vitalizing embodiment of the Roman spirit. The age at which the pupil begins the study of Latin is favorable to this emphasis. It is the age of transition from unthinking imitation to thoughtful consideration and comparison of differences, the age at which the pupil is hungry to meet conditions and know situations and things to which he has not been accustomed. The very beginning of Latin should be like a miniature Age of Pericles or Period of the Crusades in the variation from the usual in his experiences. The teacher of the beginning classes should be master of the life and spirit of the Romans as well as know the forms of the language, and should saturate all the work with the Roman spirit. It is a pity to have a beginning book make too much of an effort to use in its first lessons only those words which are transliterations of English words, such as "rosa," "longa," "oceanus," "servus," etc., or words whose meanings are very easily perceived from allied English words, and thus lose the sense of newness and the stimulus to consideration of differences of meanings. It is a mistake to allow the pupil to get the impression that the Latin language is simply a different terminology and phraseology for the very same concepts with which he has been familiar in his immediate environment. Here, too, is the secret of the difficulty so frequent in mastering the vocabulary of the Latin. No Latin word means exactly the same as the so-called English equivalent. If the pupil shall be led by a teacher well acquainted with the civilization of Rome to appreciate the differences in the meanings he will no longer be trying to remember two words for the same thing. He will have a newness of meaning with which to hold the new word. He will attach the word directly to the meaning rather than to an English word, and this meaning will weld the word to the memory as no English word could. This kind of thing leads to the appreciation of meaning

that is the touchstone of all literature. All is to be appreciated as a mold of life experience. Herein, I think, is the fundamental defect of our Latin teaching as a whole.

The human condition of the adolescent with the widening and deepening appreciation of nature and of things spiritual is ripe for the appreciation of such a poem as Virgil's *Aeneid*. No high priest of any age ever had greater function or better opportunity. Now, if ever, is the time for initiation of the youth into sympathetic appreciation of deep-souled literature—into the highest and deepest meanings of life.

Here is need of a teacher with vision, for "where there is no vision" the pupils perish. Here the pupil is expected to give attention to material which seems at first sight to contradict all previous training. Heretofore he has been putting away childish things. Now he has come to a place where "except he become as a little child he cannot enter the kingdom." It is well for the teacher to refresh and saturate himself with the inspiration that one gets from re-reading the great poets of Nature. Everything depends on freshness, eagerness, sympathetic insight. Read Wordsworth, Shelley's "Defense of Poetry," Carlyle's "The Hero as Divinity." As the pupil reads

"Iudicium Paridis spretaeque iniuria formae,"

let him read or have read to him appreciatively Tennyson's "Aenone." The pupil is easily led to see that this is not an idle dream, but that it is packed with meaning, fresh and modern as well as ancient; that this old tale of the Trojan war tells the central truth about his own life and indeed about all lives. This insight comes to the young pupil with searching suggestiveness, and puts a freshness of interest into the whole subject which he had not anticipated. It is easy to suggest forthwith that Virgil intends his hero Aeneas to be the exact antithesis of Paris in the choice he makes. From this viewpoint Aeneas instead of being the least interesting of the characters of the *Aeneid* bids well to become the most interesting of all. The problems of his character at once present themselves, and the pupil becomes conscious of the fact that in studying the *Aeneid* he is in some sense all the while studying himself. The pupil will feel a vital kinship with that far different time and country, the great unities of human existence. This enlarging of the self, this expansion of the sympathies, is the fundamental essential to the appreciation of literature. And this kind of appreciation of the *Aeneid* as literature is at the same time the appreciation of life. It is the kind of thing to be sought in the secondary-school course of Latin.

20. Address: Greek Study in Retrospect and Prospect

PROFESSOR M. L. D'OOGHE, University of Michigan.

Anniversary address, marking the completion of fifty years devoted to the teaching of Greek; published in full in the *Classical Journal*, VIII (1912), 49-59.

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

NEW YORK SCHOOL INQUIRY

The New York school inquiry has continued to attract attention during the month. Preliminary reports have been put into the hands of the New York newspapers, and widespread comment has been heard on the various recommendations of the Committee of Inquiry. Professor Hanus was good enough to supply the *Review* with the following summary which constitutes the closing paragraphs of his general summary of the report:

It is clear that in spite of the progress the public-school system of New York City has made since the consolidation, it is seriously defective. It needs thorough reorganization in respect to its administration by the Board of Education and the supervisory staff; and in respect to its general system of supervision. The Board of Education needs a clear conception of its functions, and should come to close quarters with its work. The Board of Superintendents fulfils no useful function and should be abolished. In the general system of supervision, helpful co-operation under leadership should replace bureaucratic control. The Board of Examiners is decidedly efficient, but needs reorganization to improve and maintain its efficiency. The courses of study for elementary schools and for high schools need thoroughgoing revision, and flexibility should replace rigidity in their administration. The quality of the teaching in the elementary schools, at least, is in general not good, though sometimes good to excellent. The provisions for the discovery, segregation, and appropriate treatment of mentally defective children are quite inadequate, and need immediate attention. The compulsory attendance service is inefficient; it emphasizes police functions rather than preventive measures, and the staff greatly needs reorganization on a functional basis. The recognized advantages of intermediate schools in relieving congestion have not led to the further establishment of such schools, and no attempt has been made to realize the exceptional educational opportunities these schools afford; promotions and nonpromotions are not studied so as to yield a real basis for a maximum rate of promotion; part time classes should be abolished; the estimated need of teachers for elementary schools and for high schools is not based on indisputable and well-organized data. The provision for industrial education is so meager as to be almost negligible; neither industrial nor commercial education is so maintained as to secure the necessary effective co-operation of industry and commerce, and co-operative and continuation schools are wholly absent. Habitual self-scrutiny and an appeal to well-

conducted investigations and experiments to secure the necessary data to confirm or refute educational opinion and furnish the regulative for all the activities of the school system and for its adequate financial support are lacking.

THE STANDARDIZING OF SOUTHERN HIGH SCHOOLS

The standardizing of secondary schools in the southern states has been undertaken by a commission appointed by the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States. At the meeting of this Association in 1911, a list of requirements was adopted and the committees for inspecting high schools were created. The first list will be made out in 1913, when the commission will hold a meeting at Richmond, Va. The blanks which are to be used for the collection of information have been drawn up in such a way that they are in a large degree uniform with the blanks of the North Central Association. A division of territory has also been worked out, so that there will be no duplication of effort between the North Central Association and the Southern Association.

In one respect the Southern Association has gone farther than the older association with which it is co-operating. A blank has been prepared upon which colleges will report in February of each year to the commission in each state the standing of all students entering from the high schools in that state. In this way an objective measure of the efficiency of the certificating system will be established. The development of this objective system of measurements will undoubtedly overcome some of the objections which have been made to the certification system as it is used in the northern states. Indeed a well-formulated movement is under way in the North Central Association to collect, in a large way, information of this type as a supplement to the information which is collected through personal inspection. It is only through some such supplementing of personal inspection that the certification system can ever be made to stand against the objections which are offered to it by those who, in the eastern part of the country, have been accustomed to require examination for the admission of students to college.

REPORT OF INSPECTOR OF HIGH SCHOOLS IN SOUTH CAROLINA

A report by the High School Inspector of the University of South Carolina furnishes an interesting view of the struggle which is going on in the South to develop high schools and Colleges.

After giving statistics for the state, the inspector discusses, in a

number of paragraphs, the details of the present high-school situation. These paragraphs point out by name the high schools which are deficient in particular directions. For example, the inspector calls attention to the fact that "a radical weakness in our high schools is the small amount of science teaching and the inferior quality of what is done." He then mentions various schools in which science courses are not given, and furnishes in this way a definite stimulus to each one of these schools to improve. This pointed criticism of particular schools would hardly be justified if it were not for the fact that the inspector knows that this is the only method which he can employ to bring about the improvement of conditions.

He then proceeds to ask and answer the question, "Who is responsible for these conditions, and what are the remedies?" A few quotations from his paragraphs will show the vigor with which he has attacked the problem. "Nothing is more self-evident than that the people of the state are not putting a just estimate upon the value of first-class high schools, by which is meant schools of at least four years, with a range of subject large enough to meet the needs of all pupils, with enough teachers to handle the classes, and with enough apparatus to do effective work." In order to show the lack of appreciation on the part of communities case after case is cited in which it is shown that "more than one-half of the high-school communities in the state are impoverishing their high schools by taking their sons and daughters away and sending them to college at a heavier expense than that of the entire high school at home." And this is done even before the pupils have finished the regular high-school course. The inspector then gives a number of cases which go to show that the colleges have accepted these high-school students, and have evidently been carrying on, under the name of college, work that is essentially secondary in character. The following remarkable statement calls attention to the attitude which the colleges assumed in the past: "No longer than six years ago almost every college in the state had in its Freshman class numbers of pupils from the second year in the high school. Colleges canvassed for second-year high-school pupils. So well known was all this that the high schools had difficulty in keeping their college preparatory pupils through the third year. Taking pupils from the second-year high school is yet practiced in some of the colleges, but with most of them it has come to be the exception instead of the rule. In so far as the colleges have advanced from a basis of two years of preparation to that of three years, just to that extent have the colleges contributed to the growth of the high schools."

Other interesting information is furnished by this report. Certainly a vigorous attack of this sort upon the problem of secondary education in the South is sure to result in improvement. The report commends itself for the clear-cut definiteness with which the inspector has pointed out the lines where improvements are necessary, and the agencies which must take up the problem of the development of the high school with greater vigor.

HIGHER EDUCATION IN NORTH DAKOTA

On a number of occasions the *Review* has reported the efforts of state institutions of higher education to work out a scheme which shall prevent duplication and concentrate facilities. A report along these lines has just been issued by the "Temporary Educational Commission of the State of North Dakota." This commission was created in 1911; it has been canvassing for two years the relation between the higher institutions in North Dakota, and now renders a report, with the request that the commission be continued for further investigation during the next two years.

This report differs in its findings from most of the reports which have been rendered under similar circumstances. The commission lays down two general principles for the development of the educational system of the state. The first is the principle of the co-ordination of the various institutions involved, and the second is the principle of freedom of government. "Co-ordination implies the existence of a definite place for each institution in the work of state education, and that there is a limited duplication in the relation of the institutions to each other." The principle of freedom of government is interpreted to mean that each one of the institutions of higher learning ought to have its own system of officers who are especially charged with the particular function of that special institution. The recommendation of the commission is formulated as follows: "Recognizing the principle of one board for one type of institution, the university should continue under a board as at present, the agricultural college under another board, the normal schools under a third, and the industrial schools under a fourth."

It may be said that this commission has been very largely influenced in its conclusions by an elaborate statement prepared by Mr. Babcock of the Bureau of Education of the United States, at Washington. Mr. Babcock outlines at great length the relations of the various types of institutions, and his position seems to have influenced the commission to a very great extent.

A CONFERENCE OF TEACHERS OF EDUCATION

A report has been received from Mr. Charles Mills of a conference of Professors of Education of the Middle West Universities and Colleges, held in Lincoln, Nebraska, during the last week of December. Twenty-five representatives were present from the schools of eight different states. The following program was followed:

"Does the Present Undergraduate Course in Education Accomplish Its Purpose in Training Teachers?" by Professor W. A. Jessup, University of Iowa.

"A College Graduate Teachers' Certificate Valid throughout the Middle West," by Professor J. O. Craeger, University of Wyoming.

"The Vitality of Teaching," by Professor W. M. Jones, University of South Dakota.

"What Has Been Done Along These Lines Up-to-Date," by Professor B. E. McProud, Nebraska Wesleyan University.

"School Observation; what it should seek to accomplish; how to administer it," by Professor Frank E. Thompson, University of Colorado.

"Aim of Practice Teaching, and what it is accomplishing," by Professor Charles Fordyce, University of Nebraska.

"Practice Teaching; its administration in the University," by Professor J. L. Meriam, University of Missouri.

It will not be possible to present a full summary of all of the papers. Two of the discussions of the meeting are, however, of such general importance that a brief reference may be made to them. The first dealt with the problem suggested by Professor Craeger's paper, "Is it possible to secure a college graduate teachers' certificate valid throughout a number of different states?" In the second place, a special problem, which was suggested by Professor Jessup, may be mentioned. Professor Jessup inquired whether the customary course in the history of education aids the teacher in schoolroom work. How far should practice teaching be required of the prospective high-school teacher? And how can the university department of education arrange to administer practice teaching?

The gathering gave an opportunity to inspect the work of the Department of Education at the University of Nebraska. The success of the meeting is evidenced by the fact that arrangements were made for another meeting to be held in December, 1913, at Omaha, Nebraska, under the chairmanship of Professor Charles Fordyce of the University of Nebraska.

STATEMENT BY DEAN JOHNSTON

The following communication from Dean Charles H. Johnston, of the University of Kansas, is inserted at his request.

Under the heading of National Institution for Moral Instruction, Mr. Milton Fairchild publishes a large advertising folder. This contains reading-matter relating to his lecture, to his lantern slides, and to other matters, together with some indorsements from educators and other men, of his *Visual Instruction in Morals*. My own name and that of the School of Education of the University of Kansas have been printed and thus exploited in these large folders as representing an official and professional indorsement of the whole scheme of visual instruction in morals. In view of the fact that my name and that of the School of Education are being used despite my repeated and explicit declinations to express an opinion, I hope you will allow me this much of your space to correct a very misleading educational announcement.

GEOMETRY SYLLABUS

At the request of Professor H. E. Slaught, chairman of the committee on Geometry Syllabus, working under the joint auspices of the American Federation of Science and Mathematics Teachers and the National Education Association, the following announcement is inserted for the purpose of making it possible for all the mathematics teachers to secure this publication.

The report of the National Committee of Fifteen on Geometry Syllabus, which has been under consideration for nearly three years, and which was revised and finally adopted at the N.E.A. meeting in July, 1912, has now been republished in a pamphlet of 70 pages and is ready for distribution to the teachers of Geometry, and all others interested. This report was prepared under the joint auspices of the American Federation of Teachers of the Mathematical and Natural Sciences and the National Education Association. It includes a historical introduction and sections on axioms and definitions, on exercises and problems, and the syllabus itself including both plane and solid geometry. It is the hope of the committee that this report may be of great service to all teachers of geometry, and to this end that it may have a wide distribution among all interested. Copies may be secured gratis upon application to the Commissioner of Education, Department of the Interior, Washington, D.C.

PRINCETON ADMISSION EXAMINATIONS

Princeton has adopted a plan of admission examinations closely resembling the Harvard plan. The new Princeton arrangement is described as follows:

Radical changes in the requirements for admission into Princeton University, by which the number of examinations which must be passed has been considerably reduced, have been announced in the new catalogue of the university which has just been published. The regular requirements have been altered in several respects and a new system has been adopted whereby students of more than average ability will be obliged, in the future, to take only a portion of the examinations originally stipulated for entrance.

The modifications of the regular requirements are intended to give the candidates for admission a larger freedom in the choice of subjects, this change being made especially with a view toward enabling the students in public high schools to adopt their preparation to the Princeton requirements. In respect to the total amounts required there are no alterations, the changes merely giving the student a broader choice of subjects.

An entirely new alternative method of admission to the Freshman class has also been adopted, under the provisions of which the student is forced to pass only four examinations instead of sixteen as formerly, provided he can produce statements from his preparatory school principal which will convince the university entrance committee that he has covered the sixteen subjects and stood above the average in his classes. This system has been adopted to meet the cases of the candidates who have decided late in their school courses to come to Princeton and who have not taken preliminary examinations. The method provides for general examinations in four major subjects—mathematics, Latin, English, and either Greek or modern language, in place of detailed examinations in several different branches of each of these studies.

WINDSOR INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL

The following item is clipped from the *Boston Transcript*:

Windsor, Conn., is to be the seat of a \$2,000,000 vocational high school. Already the plans for the opening of this new institution are at hand; already the architects are competing for the privilege of supervising the erection of \$300,000 worth of buildings. It is expected that the school to be called Loomis Institute will be ready for pupils in the fall of 1914.

The present plans of the trustees provide for a student body of about sixty at the start, which will insure accommodations for all the Windsor boys and girls who are likely at the outset to seek entrance to the school, and to provide at the same time for the considerable number of non-resident pupils who will be eligible to receive tuition there under the terms of the Loomis bequest. The fact is, perhaps, not generally understood, even in Windsor, that the founders contemplated the creation of a school which shall draw pupils from every part of the country, and that it is to be not only a Connecticut school, but a national school. The charter of the school says: "In case a greater number of persons having the requisite qualifications shall apply for admission than the institute can accommodate, then selection from

said applicants shall be made, first from those belonging to the Loomis family by name or consanguinity, next from those belonging to the town of Windsor, next from those belonging to the state of Connecticut, and next from those deemed most worthy, without regard to state or nation."

Two of the stipulations of the Loomis Institute founders put constraints upon the trustees which educational experts in these days would not elect to assume. The school must provide instruction for young persons of both sexes, and no tuition fee can be received from any pupil. It must be a free coeducational school. The income is, fortunately, large enough to enable 200 or more students ultimately to receive training. The trustees are free to use as much or as little of the endowment for buildings as they please, and they are not compelled to spend all the income for carrying on the school until after all the buildings are completed. The trustees have determined to build only a portion of the contemplated structures before opening the school. Plans have been invited for a group of buildings which will include a main school and administration building, a number of dormitories, a residence for the head master of the school, and other necessary structures. It is proposed to provide the students with training which shall enable them not merely to earn a living, but to enter various walks of life with skill and efficiency. Girls will be taught more important things than stenography and typewriting. They will be educated in domestic science, and also trained for the work of matrons in public institutions, and even for the larger responsibilities of the business careers into which so many young women are now beginning to make their way. Boys will be taught to be good artisans, mechanics, clerks, and citizens.

The school will be called a vocational high school, but it is also planned to arrange the curriculum so that boys and girls may be fitted for college.

ENGLISH EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION

The similarity between the new English Municipal Education and the state systems which are familiar in America has been commented on in the *Review*. The following editorial copied from the *Philadelphia Inquirer* draws attention to the efforts which are being made in England to develop a complete system of popular education:

Soon after the British Liberal Party came into power, which was on December 5, 1905, a bill to reform the educational system of the country was introduced by the Bannerman Ministry. It was strongly opposed by the Conservatives in and out of Parliament. All the great influences controlled by the Church of England were arrayed against it and after it had been amended beyond recognition in the House of Lords the government let it drop. Since then no further effort to legislate upon this subject has been made. Other matters of greater urgency have engaged the attention of the administration,

and the fact that it could not depend upon receiving the wholehearted support of the Irish Nationalists for any measure which involved the elimination of all religious teaching from the public schools helps to account for its inaction. According to a current report, however, its purposes in the premises have not been abandoned. We are told that Viscount Haldane and Mr. David Lloyd-George, whose energies seem untiring, have formulated a comprehensive scheme of educational reform which covers the whole ground from the primary school to the university.

Its avowed object is to provide a ladder up which any learner who is willing to work hard and whose mental endowment is equal to the occasion may climb from the ground to the top at the public expense. The scope of the instruction furnished by the primary schools is to be extended at both ends by beginning it earlier and continuing it later, and at the same time the curriculum is to be so broadened as to include much manual and technical teaching not now supplied. In the secondary schools these processes are to be further developed as capacity justifies and circumstances admit. There are to be subsidies and scholarships whereby the door of the university shall be opened to every boy and girl attaining to the prescribed standard of proficiency, and in order that there may be enough doors to accommodate the crowds which are expected to qualify themselves for admission, several such universities as those at Liverpool and Leeds are to be established and maintained. Thus there is to be created a symmetrically developed system whereby the great and manifold blessings of a university education are to be brought within the reach of all.

There is likely to be a wide difference of opinion as to the economic value of this ambitious project. Not everyone is convinced that a university education is worth to all its money cost. Some think that in a great many cases it does more harm than good because it involves a loss of time which can never be made up, and actually disqualifies the student for the kind of work in which he would be most usefully and profitably employed. For the young man who is intending to enter one of the learned professions, whose ranks are already so greatly overcrowded, a university education is highly desirable, if not positively necessary, but most young men can get along very well without it.

Apart from this consideration, however, there is the question of ways and means. It will necessitate a large appropriation to carry the Haldane-George program into effect, and the already overburdened taxpayers of the United Kingdom will want to know where the money is coming from. There is not much likelihood that this big educational program will be carried out at any early day.

BOOK REVIEWS

Principles of Rural Economics. By THOMAS NIXON CARVER. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1911. Pp. xvii+386.

This book by Harvard's noted economist is one of the best contributions to secondary education in agriculture yet made. It furnishes a distinctly cultural element appropriate to the subject which has been lacking to a large degree. This characterization is made in no disparagement of the eminently practical application made of economic laws to the business affairs of the farmer himself.

The clear historical treatment of the relation of the farming class to the land in England from the time of the Conquest explains the origin of many present-day conventions. The exposition of the relation between cost of land and cost of labor should lead to clearer thinking about many proposals for curing present ills and a better discrimination between them. Descriptions are given of the introduction, often with great difficulty, of many reforms and innovations in agriculture. In short, the book is replete with accounts of how various conditions and operations of modern agriculture came to be and how their development has progressed in obedience to economic principles.

As the author says of the treatise, "it emphasizes the public and social aspects of the rural problem somewhat more, and the business aspect somewhat less, than do most treatises on this subject." Together with his ability as a keen thinker, Professor Carver brings to his task the familiarity with the subject gained by being reared on a farm and being himself later engaged independently in farming. No claim is made that the book is intended for the use of secondary-school pupils. Certain parts, notably the discussion of wages, rent, and single tax, in the chapter on the distribution of agricultural income, demand a mind of more maturity than is possessed by most high-school pupils. Just as high-school debating societies of two decades ago argued the question "Who pays the tariff?" so public questions will come up continually before the more active adolescent minds; to such, even the chapter referred to will be of great value. The work as a whole is probably as near the level of the capacity of the youths in high-school agriculture classes as the subject-matter permits, certainly as much so as is the material in those histories which rise above the mere narration of passing events.

The chapter headings are: i, "General Principles"; ii, "Historical Sketch of Modern Agriculture"; iii, "The Factors of Agricultural Production"; iv, "Management as a Factor in Agricultural Production"; v, "The Distribution of the Agricultural Income"; vi, "Problems of Rural Social Life."

The bibliography, placed in the front of the book by the way, is rather full,

not even neglecting Cato and Columella, though one wonders at the choice of a government bulletin on the use of simple chemical demonstrations with home-made apparatus and of a few of the older elementary-school texts to the exclusion of later and more important general texts on agriculture.

The Improvement of Rural Schools. By ELLWOOD P. CUBBERLEY.
Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1912. Pp. x+76.

This little book presents a concise statement of the changed economic and social conditions of farming communities resulting in a decrease in the efficiency of the rural schools, together with suggestions as to the steps necessary to their betterment, centralization of authority, consolidation of schools, a changed attitude of patrons toward many obsolete and wasteful methods both financial and supervisory. The chapter headings are: i, "The Problem"; ii, "More Money"; iii, "Better Organization"; iv, "Better Supervision."

The small size of the book affords space for hardly more than a restatement of many widely discussed topics. The rather close analysis of chap. ii presents questions rarely touched upon in popular addresses or papers. This little work should help rural-school patrons and trustees wishing to analyze the local situations, if it could only reach them. The introduction by Professor Suzzallo, the editor of the "Riverside Educational Monographs," of which this book is one, is not the least valuable feature. The illustrations consist of four maps showing forms of school organization by states, tenure and methods of electing county superintendents, a proposed and an accomplished rearrangement of a county for school consolidation. The last two are from George W. Knorr's report on rural-school consolidation issued by the United States Department of Agriculture.

Agricultural Education in Public Schools. By BENJAMIN MARSHALL DAVIS, with an introduction by CHARLES HUBBARD JUDD. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1912. Pp. vii+163.

The scope of Dr. Davis' work is much broader than is indicated by its title, for it really considers all the agencies of agricultural education even though they have little or no direct connection with school systems. It considers the educational work of the United States Department of Agriculture of the state organizations for agriculture, and of state farmers' institutes, and as well of agricultural societies. It treats of the work of such political institutions as the United States Bureau of Education and the state departments of education, and summarizes state legislation. A view is given of the direct bearing on the problem of the work of state normal schools and agricultural colleges, including their extension work, departments of agricultural education, and summer schools. Elementary and secondary schools are given less attention than the title of the book would lead one to expect, but the treatment is excellent and consistent with the general plan followed. Chapters are devoted to such professional activities and school accessories as the National Education Associa-

tion, state and other teachers' organizations, boys' agricultural clubs, textbooks, educational periodicals, and periodical literature. The topics are not, however, taken up in the order given here.

It will be seen from the above that a comprehensive view is given of the various agencies devoted to educating the rural public. Each chapter gives a concise but good treatment of the historical development of the factor in question. Any investigation can only keep abreast of its source materials. Agricultural education in normal and high schools has changed so rapidly since these respective chapters appeared in *Elementary School Teacher* that his most recent reference materials are now histories of past conditions rather than accounts of the present situation. In fact, no more elaborate account of the work of the normal schools than his chapter has yet appeared. The consulting reader will find no more recent or more authoritative account of the movement in its entirety than this timely work.

The bibliography is particularly helpful, 28 pages being given to the annotations of the 202 titles, and "has been selected with the view to presenting typical contributions on various phases of agricultural education in elementary and secondary schools." It also adds 28 titles of textbooks published since 1902 to the 49 listed by Dean Bailey in the *Annual Report* of the Office of Experiment Stations for 1903. The bibliography would, perhaps, be more usable for reference if an alphabetically arranged cross reference list were appended.

C. H. ROBISON

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL
MONTCLAIR, N.J.

Fundamentals of French Grammar. By WILLIAM B. SNOW. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1912. Pp. xi+267. \$1.15.

Fundamentals of French Grammar is a book in which teachers of French who believe that even the teaching of elementary grammar should keep in touch with the progress of linguistic science will find some, even if by no means all, of their desires fulfilled; it is therefore a pleasure to call their attention to it. On the other hand, this progressive attitude, apparent in many details to those who are on the lookout for it, is so discreetly taken that the most conservative of teachers or school boards will not be at all alarmed by it, and will undoubtedly find some of its other features to their liking.

Very much in its favor is its brevity, the grammar proper consisting only of 144 pages, in which all necessary "fundamentals" seem to be nevertheless satisfactorily covered. This first part of the book also contains varied, brief exercises, including some translation exercises of isolated sentences. Since translation into French still remains an essential part of college-entrance requirements, even teachers who believe that translation is not only useless, but positively harmful, cannot yet dispense with it altogether; though they might use for other purposes the attractive selections of connected French texts to be found in the second part of the book, and intended, with the trans-

lation exercises based upon them, to provide "substantial drill material" for intensive work in connection with the grammar. Teachers who use it for this purpose will undoubtedly find that much ground will be well covered in comparatively little time.

Another good feature of the book is the treatment of French sounds, which does, indeed, avoid almost entirely the use of phonetic terms but is "phonetically" sound, as far as it goes. A teacher who desires to take a class farther than the book does will find the way prepared instead of finding it blocked, as is too often the case with other textbooks. The use of the phonetic type is not restricted to marking the pronunciation of isolated words, but whole French exercises are given in it, "at the bottom of the page, where those who wish it can find it easily, and those who object to it need not look at it." This conciliating unobtrusiveness may perhaps help to make some converts.

Still another attractive feature is the treatment of the verbs, even irregular verbs being introduced at once (p. 23), since "far better results are obtained when, from the beginning, the pupil learns most forms as derived in accordance with a few simple rules, and then concentrates his attention on the exceptions." Consequently Mr. Snow duly brings out the importance of the shifting of the stress, with consequent vowel-change, in the conjugation of the verb. But his explanation seems questionable. He says, p. 27: "More stress requires more breath; more breath requires a wider mouth opening to let it out; opening the mouth wider means naturally a change to a more open vowel." It can be objected that it is by no means necessary to assume any strengthening of stress for the changes, e. g., Latin *e* > *ei* > *oi*; or Latin *o* > *uo* > *ue* > *eu*. The three steps were really (1) lengthening of free vowel; (2) diphthongation, which implies some weakening rather than any strengthening; (3) sound-change of increment. It is noteworthy that this change produced in every case a more closed, by no means a more open, vowel than the original one. The plain statement of the real facts in the case is, and remains, the best explanation.

It is no fault of the book that the treatment of modes and tenses offers itself most temptingly for discussion, a discussion which would lead so far that it cannot be indulged in here. Even where it might be possible to take issue with Mr. Snow's statements, it must be admitted that these objections would by no means call into question the value of the book for use in the French classrooms of schools and colleges, where, it is to be hoped, it will soon make for itself the place and name it undoubtedly deserves.

Essentials of French. By VICTOR E. FRANÇOIS. New York: American Book Co., 1912. Pp. 426.

The object of the author in writing this book was "to prepare an attractive, practical, slowly progressive grammar." A teacher who is in sympathy with the time-honored uncompromising translation method, and either by choice or by necessity desires to reduce the intellectual effort of the pupils as

much as possible, will find that the author faithfully keeps in his book the promise of the preface. Other teachers, on the contrary, may be repelled by the bulk of the book, and its exceedingly deliberate gait; irregular verbs, e.g., are not touched at all till the fifty-fifth lesson, on p. 194. Each lesson consists of "the French text, which is the pivot of the lesson; a grammar drill, or set of questions, or both; and an English exercise based on the preceding French texts. . . . The questions are also based on the French text, leaving no excuse to the student for not answering them properly."

This French text, to the very last exercise on p. 344, consists of almost entirely disconnected sentences, so that the "proper" answers of the student will depend, not on any power gained by previous work, but on purely mechanical memory work: e.g., "Que dit-on du lac que vous, avez vu ?—On dit que le lac que nous avons vu est le plus pittoresque du pays. Que pensez-vous de votre sœur ?—Je pense que ma sœur est très généreuse; elle donne à ses amies ses plus jolies fleurs." In this respect the book marks a step backward rather than a step in advance, not only of more recent publications like Effinger and Thieme's or Colin and Sérafon's grammars, but even of older books like Fraser and Squair.

Given the kind of grammar that Mr. François undertook to write, these traits, objectionable though they may appear to some teachers, were most likely inevitable; and it can be freely conceded that the author has succeeded in producing a most painstaking, careful, consistent piece of work, a grammar that should make a strong appeal to those teachers who are in sympathy with the method employed.

Le français et sa patrie. By L. RAYMOND TALBOT. Boston: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co., 1912. Pp. 294.

"To present French which will be easy enough for use early in the first year of study and at the same time be of interest to the pupils" is the very praiseworthy object of the book, and it is undoubtedly true that "both teachers and pupils will certainly welcome information concerning the people whose language they are studying."

This information is attractively conveyed in the first part of the book by a series of dialogues between two young Americans who come together to Paris and go sight-seeing there; in the second part of the book, letters written by one of the two young men to the other, who has left Paris, and also to other friends, take the place of the dialogues, and give interesting glimpses not only of the capital but of other sections of the country. While these accounts and descriptions nowhere reveal a profound understanding of French social and political conditions, they are bright, chatty, and pleasing; they should prove of interest to any wide-awake school or college class, and furnish excellent material for drill in conversation.

That among the host of "facts" stated, some errors should have crept in is scarcely surprising. Thus, p. 61, it was not "en formant la République" that the old division of France into provinces was replaced by the newer one

into "départements"; this change had already taken place under the reign of Louis XVI. The *lapodrida* (p. 157) is most probably neither a Russian word nor a Russian dish, but rather a corruption of *olla-podrida* given even in the Petit Larousse with the definition: "Mets espagnol qui consiste en un mélange de viandes, de garnitures de légumes. . . ." A good many of the statements about schools and education in France must be taken with a grain of salt, since a fundamental confusion seems to exist between a French "university" and an American "college." An American high-school diploma falls far short of covering the amount and grade of work demanded for a French *baccalauréat*, and, e.g., the remark concerning the French students who take up professional study on entering a university, "vous voyez quelle différence; nous disons que c'est mieux d'avoir une éducation libérale avant de commencer les études professionnelles," falls of itself.

These slight slips do not detract from the general usefulness of the book, being certainly no greater than might occur in the actual accounts or real letters of almost any bona fide traveler. More serious objections must be made to the language, which seems to stand in need of careful and drastic revision. It will suffice to quote a few of the many questionable passages that can be found on almost every page: p. 33, "à chaque *opportunité*," for *occasion*; p. 35, "le *caractéristique*" for *la caractéristique*; p. 82, "l'*imprimerie* dans tous ces vieux livres," for *l'impression*; p. 108, "corrompent les *morales* des jeunes Français," for *les mœurs*; "*demeurent dans les dortoirs*," for *sont en pension* (?); p. 153, "j'ai même rencontré des gens qui *n'aient pas* compris le français," for *n'ont pas*, or, perhaps better, *ne comprenaient pas*.

These and similar flaws must be eliminated before careful teachers who feel that "idiomatic French" is attainable only at the price of constant care and vigilance will be able to safely place the book in the hands of their beginners.

CHICAGO

CHARLOTTE J. CIPRIANI

Current Educational Activities. A Report upon Education throughout the World. Being the 1911 volume of "The Annals of Educational Progress." By JOHN PALMER GARBER. (Lippincott's "Educational Series," edited by M. G. BRUMBAUGH.) Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1912. Pp. 387.

As the title shows, this is the second volume of an annual series, the first of which was published last year. The present volume follows the same general plan as the volume of last year. Inasmuch as this plan was outlined and discussed in a review of the first volume in the January number of the *School Review* of last year, it does not seem necessary to duplicate that review. This review will therefore deal briefly with distinctive features of this volume.

The general plan of the author is to give special detailed consideration to a leading educational topic each year. In the volume of 1910 "Vocational Education" and "Agricultural Education" were treated as the special topics

in Part I. In the present volume "Recreation" and "Defectives and Physical Education" are given first place and special consideration in Part I, occupying the first 72 pages of the book. In chap. i, on "Recreation," the author deals with the "Origin and Necessity of Play"; the "Relation of Play to the Body, to the Intellect, and to the Emotional Life"; "Work and Play"; "Playgrounds"; "The Interest of the State in Play"; and "Legitimate Amusements." The author then passes to a consideration of "Athletics," treating of "The Evils of Specialization and Competition," "Football," and "Athletics as a Social and Moral Agency." Then follows a brief treatment of "Rest and Recreation." In chap. ii, on "Defectives and Physical Education," the author treats of the methods of training mental and moral defectives, and the value of play in that training.

The distinctive features of this volume as compared with the previous one are, first, the change in the title, second, the new topic for special treatment, and third, the bibliography which has been added. "Current Educational Activities" characterizes the contents of the volume much better than "Annals of Educational Progress." As was pointed out in last year's review, much of the educational activity herein noted may not be, or indicate, real progress. The new topic "Recreation" and its relation to education is undoubtedly worthy of the special treatment which is accorded it in the present volume, even though the problem of vocational education has by no means been solved; indeed its solution has not even been fairly clearly determined upon. The addition of a bibliography of 33 references to the special chapters on "Recreation" is a distinctly valuable addition to this volume.

The book is not technical; on the contrary, it is a popularly written account of interesting educational activities during the year 1911. As such it is well worth careful reading, for in no other publication with which I am familiar can one find such a comprehensive review of educational developments.

FRANK W. BALLOU

CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

Mouth Hygiene. By JOHN SAYCE MARSHALL. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1912. Pp. 262.

That a book on mouth hygiene should be written "to meet the needs of school teachers, sanitarians, and the general public" indicates the increasing importance attached to all subjects related to health.

Dr. Marshall presents many facts and figures showing that from 75 to 95 per cent of school children suffer from dental and oral diseases; that neglect of these conditions in the mouth leads to many other and more serious diseases; and that dental and oral diseases are in a large measure preventable and curable.

The measures advocated to improve the present conditions are: the teaching of oral hygiene in the public schools; the daily inspection of the children's

teeth; the furnishing of a toothbrush to every child—the brushes to be properly tagged and kept by themselves in a special receptacle and washed and sterilized by steam or alcohol after each use; the conducting of a daily toothbrush drill; and the appointment of a trained nurse in every grammar school to have charge of the cleansing and sterilizing of the brushes, and of the toothbrush drill, besides the usual duties assigned to school nurses.

It will be some time before such a plan can be fully carried out in the schools. Meanwhile, there is a great need for a broad campaign of education in the importance of mouth hygiene. This excellent book should be instrumental in arousing interest in the subject and in disseminating knowledge concerning the ways and means of securing practical results.

Elementary Biology, Animal and Human. By JAMES EDWARD PEABODY and ARTHUR ELLSWORTH HUNT. New York: Macmillan, 1912. Pp. 212.

This volume exemplifies the modern viewpoint in science teaching to high-school students who either will not go to college or if they take a college course will not specialize in scientific subjects. The authors state that "the primary emphasis should be placed on the many relations of biology to human welfare." This idea supersedes the plan of the older textbooks to give a complete survey of the elements of a science without regard for the applications of the knowledge gained to the problems of everyday life.

Limitations of time compel a rigid and somewhat narrow selection of groups for extensive study, and only those functions of each animal are considered which have some relation to human biology, or which have a broad, economic bearing. Thus insects are discussed largely because of their injurious or beneficial effects upon mankind; birds and fishes, because of their economic importance, and because of the great need of their conservation; and one-celled animals because of the light they throw on cellular processes.

The same plan is followed in the section on human biology. "The authors believe that in this, the most important part of the course, practical hygiene should be taught as effectively as possible."

The selection and arrangement of material and illustrations are very good, and the presentation is clear and interesting. The information is in general accurate, but one finds a few statements open to criticism. On pp. 119-20: "After violent exercise this organ may beat as often as twice a second"; p. 120: "These often result in permanent thickening of the walls of the valves of the heart"; p. 133: "The second wind that the runner gets after a short time is due to the expansion of all portions of the lung tissue"; p. 136: the Sylvester method of artificial respiration is described and no mention made of the newer and better Schaefer prone-pressure method.

GEORGE L. MEYLAN

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- Mezger, Robert, and Mueller, Wilhelm. *Kreuz und Quer durch deutsche Lande*. New York: American Book Co., 1912. Pp. 260. Illustrated. \$0.60.

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HISTORY AND CIVICS

- Gause, Frank A., and Carr, Charles Carl. The Story of Panama, the New Route to India. Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1912. Pp. xiii + 290. Illustrated. \$1.50.
- Wolfson, Arthur Mayer. Outline for Review: Civics. New York: American Book Co., 1913. Pp. 80. \$0.25.

SCIENCE

- Peabody, James Edward, and Hunt, Arthur Ellsworth. Elementary Biology: Plant, Animal, Human. New York: Macmillan, 1913. Pp. xxiv + 170 + 194 + 229. Illustrated. \$1.25 net.
- Segerblom, Wilhelm. First Year Chemistry: A Text in Elementary Chemistry for Secondary Schools. Exeter, N.H.: Exeter Book Publishing Co., 1909. Pp. xxv + 410. Illustrated.
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CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE IN THE PERIODICALS¹

IRENE WARREN²

Librarian, School of Education, the University of Chicago

- Abercrombie, D. W. Honesty in school work. *Educa.* 33:289-99. (Ja. '13.)
Shows the causes of dishonesty on the part of students, and the suggested remedies.
- Anderson, Roxanna E. A preliminary study of the reading tastes of high school pupils. *Pedagog. Sem.* 19:438-60. (D. '12.)
A study by means of questionnaire blanks filled out by the pupils.
- Ash, Isaac Emery. The correlates and condition of mental inertia. *Pedagog. Sem.* 19:425-37. (D. '12.)
Reports a method of testing the originality and mental alertness of pupils by offering pairs of alternative problems or tasks. The results are correlated with general school standing and efficiency.
- Ashley, M. L. Education as growth. *Educa. Bi-mo.* 7:149-52. (D. '12.)
- Barnes, Earl. The education of a partially paralyzed muscle. *Pedagog. Sem.* 19:518-21. (D. '12.)
A brief description of the form of treatment and exercise by which a case of infantile paralysis was greatly ameliorated.
- Brown, J. C. An investigation on the value of drill work in the fundamental operations of arithmetic. II. *J. of Educa. Psychol.* 3:561-70. (D. '12.)
Conclusion of the study showing the advantage of drill over non-drill methods.
- Bruner, Frank G. What shall we teach the subnormal child? *Educa. Bi-mo.* 7:112-23. (D. '12.)
An argument for training of the subnormal child which shall center in specific and concentrated drill in an industrial process.
- Buckham, John W. Study of religion in the university. *Educa. R.* 45:44-57. (Ja. '13.)

¹ *Abbreviations.*—Cent., Century; *Educa.*, Education; *Educa. Bi-mo.*, Educational Bi-monthly; *Educa. R.*, Educational Review; *El. School T.*, Elementary School Teacher; *Harp. W.*, Harper's Weekly; *J. of Educa. Psychol.*, Journal of Educational Psychology; *Lit. D.*, Literary Digest; *Man. Train. M.*, Manual Training Magazine; *Outl.*, Outlook; *Pedagog. Sem.*, Pedagogical Seminary; *Pop. Sci. Mo.*, Popular Science Monthly; *Psychol. Clinic*, Psychological Clinic; *School R.*, School Review; *School W.*, School World; *Sci. Am. Sup.*, Scientific American Supplement.

² Annotations by Dr. F. W. Bobbitt and Dr. F. N. Freeman.

Burnham, William H., and Fitzsimmons, M. Evelyn. The educational museum at Clark University. *Pedagog. Sem.* 19:526-52. (D. '12.)

A catalogue of the articles in the new educational museum which illustrates the development of school hygiene.

Chapman, Maxwell. The honor system at Princeton. *Educa.* 33:312-14. (Ja. '13.)

A brief statement of methods employed in effectively operating the honor system at Princeton.

Chauncey, Alexander Wallace. The honor system of Sheffield Scientific School. *Educa.* 33:315-17. (Ja. '13.)

Figures to show class sentiment, and the actual pledges signed.

"Cramming" for civil service examinations. *School W.* 15:7. (Ja. '13.)

Cutting, Starr Willard. The teaching of foreign modern literatures in our schools. *Educa. Bi-mo.* 7:97-103. (D. '12.)

The kind of literature and mode of treatment suitable in teaching modern foreign languages in the secondary schools.

Dolbear, Katherine E. Precocious children. *Pedagog. Sem.* 19:461-91. (D. '12.)

A critical study of the recently exploited cases of precocious children to determine how far their unusual development is due to special training. With a large bibliography.

FitzGerald, Ellen. Writers to read—Montaigne. *Educa. Bi-mo.* 7:104-7. (D. '12.)

The value of a study of Montaigne's writings to the teachers of composition.

Flower, E. Little village actors. *Child (London)* 3:328-33. (Ja. '13.)

An account of a play given by children from eight to twelve years of age.

Forbes, Charles H., and Fowler, Henry Thatcher. The degree for college plus school work. *Educa.* 33:263-75. (Ja. '13.)

Defense of college autocracy and of the classical program. Emphasizes the idea of continuity of secondary and collegiate work, and of the need of integration of courses.

Frazer, Norman L. English texts for schools. *School W.* 15:1-3. (Ja. '13.)

Grady, William E. Age and progress in a New York City school. *Psychol. Clinic* 6:209-21. (Ja. '13.)

Hadley, Arthur T. Methods of ascertaining and apportioning cost of instruction in universities. *Educa. R.* 45:58-69. (Ja. '13.)

Heald, Lucy. George Meredith's interest in education. *School R.* 21:112-33. (Fe. '13.)

By means of citations and quotations, shows Mr. Meredith's thorough appreciation of educational purposes and needs.

Henderson, Wilson H. What the manufacturer should expect of the manual training school graduate. *Man. Train. M.* 14:245-47. (Fe. '13.)

Hillix, Foster F. Record and cost keeping in school shops. *Man. Train. M.* 14:223-28. (Fe. '13.)

Hutchinson, Jean. Textile industries and their practical application to education. *Educa. Bi-mo.* 7:173-78. (D. '12.)

Some practical suggestions.

Kendall, Calvin N. The training of high-school teachers. *School R.* 21:92-102. (Fe. '13.)

Discusses in connection with the training of secondary teachers: academic training, professional study of education, observation of teaching, and practice teaching.

Kirkland, Chancellor J. H. The Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the South. *School R.* 21:103-11. (Fe. '13.)

Considers purposes of the association, college-entrance requirements, examinations, standards, and recent advances.

Lewis, E. E. The present status of vocational subjects in the high schools of California. *Man. Train. M.* 14:229-34. (Fe. '13.)

(The) "Literary Digest" as a textbook. *Lit. D.* 46:81. (11 Ja. '13.)

Lyons, Marian C. An argument for business English. *Educa. Bi-mo.* 7:108-11. (D. '12.)

Macdonald, Arthur. Diffusion of education and knowledge. *Sci. Am. Sup.* 75:27. (11 Ja. '13.)

MacDougall, Robert. The child's speech. III. Speech without words. *J. of Educa. Psychol.* 3:571-76. (D. '12.)

The use of inarticulate sounds as means of expression of emotions and meanings.

———. The child's speech. IV. Word and meaning. *J. of Educa. Psychol.* 4:29-38. (Ja. '13.)

A continuation of the previous study.

MacGillivray, D. The state leaving certificate of Scottish schools, with special reference to the qualifying examination of the primary stage. *School W.* 15:5-7. (Ja. '13.)

McManis, John T. The study of children in the normal school. *Educa. Bi-mo.* 7:124-31. (D. '12.)

Metzler, William H. Problems in the experimental pedagogy of geometry. *J. of Educa. Psychol.* 3:545-60. (D. '12.)

An elaborate set of proposed tests of the efficiency of geometry teaching.

Milne, William P. The teaching of scholarship mathematics in secondary schools. *School W.* 15:8-11. (Ja. '13.)

Mitchill, Theodore C. Loss of efficiency in the recitation. *Educa. R.* 45:8-28. (Ja. '13.)

Morton, William Henry Stephenson. Retardation in Nebraska. *Psychol. Clinic* 6:222-28. (Ja. '13.)

A general discussion with bibliography.

(The) most notable school books of 1912. *School W.* 15:15-17. (Ja. '13.)

New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools. *Educa.* 33: 257-62. (Ja. '13.)

Program; records of the business meeting; entrance requirements and the college degree.

Parmenter, Charles W., and Sanford, Edmund C. The degree for college work only. *Educa.* 33:276-88. (Ja. '13.)

Presents the reasons for recognizing modern courses as equal to the older ones for college preparation. Emphasizes the need of variety and continuity in studies, and of scientific study of the problems as a basis of judgment.

Paton, Stewart. College or university. *Pop. Sci. Mo.* 82:192-201. (Fe. '13.)

Phelps, William Lyon. Student honesty in college. *Educa.* 33:300-302. (Ja. '13.)

Plans for a greater University of Montana. *Science* 37:170-71. (31 Ja. '13.)

Pott, William S. A. The honor system of the University of Virginia. *Educa.* 33:303-11. (Ja. '13.)

Shows how the honor system has worked in a university that has longest employed it.

(The) Presidents and deans of various colleges for women. *Fraternities in women's colleges.* *Cent.* 85:526-32. (Fe. '13.)

Prosser, C. A. Practical arts and vocational guidance. *Man. Train. M.* 14: 209-22. (Fe. '13.)

(The) public school up to date. *Dial* 54:81-83. (1 Fe. '13.)

Ryan, Johanna V. Library conditions in American cities. *Educa. Bi-mo.* 7:157-72. (D. '12.)

Statistics of high-school libraries based on a questionnaire.

(The) Roosevelt professor and the Harvard exchange professor at the University of Berlin. *Educa. R.* 45:70-86. (Ja. '13.)

Shallies, Guy-Wheeler. The distribution of high-school graduates after leaving school. *School R.* 21:81-91. (Fe. '13.)

Considers the relative ability of the groups of high-school graduates that enter college, normal schools, teaching without further training, business, industry, and housework, as shown by relative standing in class.

Shepherd, John Wilkes. Some suggestions for the teaching of nature study. II. *Educa. Bi-mo.* 7:132-48. (D. '12.)

Topics and methods suitable for the various grades.

Smith, David Eugene. The international commission on the teaching of mathematics. *Educa. R.* 45:1-7. (Ja. '13.)

(The) Society of College Teachers of Education. *School R.* 21:124-33. (Fe. '13.)

Staples, Clarence Leonard. A critique of high school Latin. *Pedagog. Sem.* 19:492-509. (D. '12.)

The author maintains that Latin in the high school should aim not at culture nor discipline but at an understanding of the derivation and grammatical structure of English.

Stone, C. W. Problems in the scientific study of the teaching of arithmetic. *J. of Educa. Psychol.* 4:1-16. (Ja. '13.)

A detailed outline of problems relating both to the value of arithmetic and to the methods of teaching it.

Storey, Thomas A. A follow-up system in medical inspection. *Pedagog. Sem.* 19:522-25. (D. '12.)

Describes the system used in the College of the City of New York of enforcing individual advice given concerning medical and hygienic treatment.

Teachers' certificates of proficiency. *School W.* 15:3-5. (Ja. '13.)

(A) theatre all for children. *Lit. D.* 46:74-75. (11 Ja. '13.)

Town, Clara Harrison. Language development in 285 idiots and imbeciles. *Psychol. Clinic* 6:229-35. (Ja. '13.)

The author finds a close relation between degree of mental defect and deficiency in language.

(The) universities. *Harp. W.* 57:34. (11 Ja. '13.)

Webster, Edward Harlan. Verse making in our schools. *Pedagog. Sem.* 19:510-17. (D. '12.)

It is argued that children can versify and that the practice would be valuable in a number of ways. Methods of teaching are suggested.

Weintrob, Joseph, and Weintrob, Raleigh. The influence of environment on mental ability as shown by Binet-Simon tests. *J. of Educa. Psychol.* 3:577-83. (D. '12.)

A comparison of the intelligence of children in the Horace Mann School, the Speyer School, and an orphan asylum, as measured by the Binet scale.

Who broke the window? *Outl.* 103:75-78. (11 Ja. '13.)

Wilkinson, M. O. B. The executive values in education. *Educa. R.* 45:29-43. (Ja. '13.)

Winch, W. H. Mental adaptation during the school day as measured by arithmetical reasoning. Pt. 1. *J. of Educa. Psychol.* 4:17-28. (Ja. '13.)

The report of an experiment to compare the adaptability to mathematical problems of pupils who work in the early and in the latter part of the forenoon.

